

Exploring the Effectiveness of the Explicit Instruction of
Metaphors in EFL Classrooms: A Case Study of Kuwaiti
Learners of English

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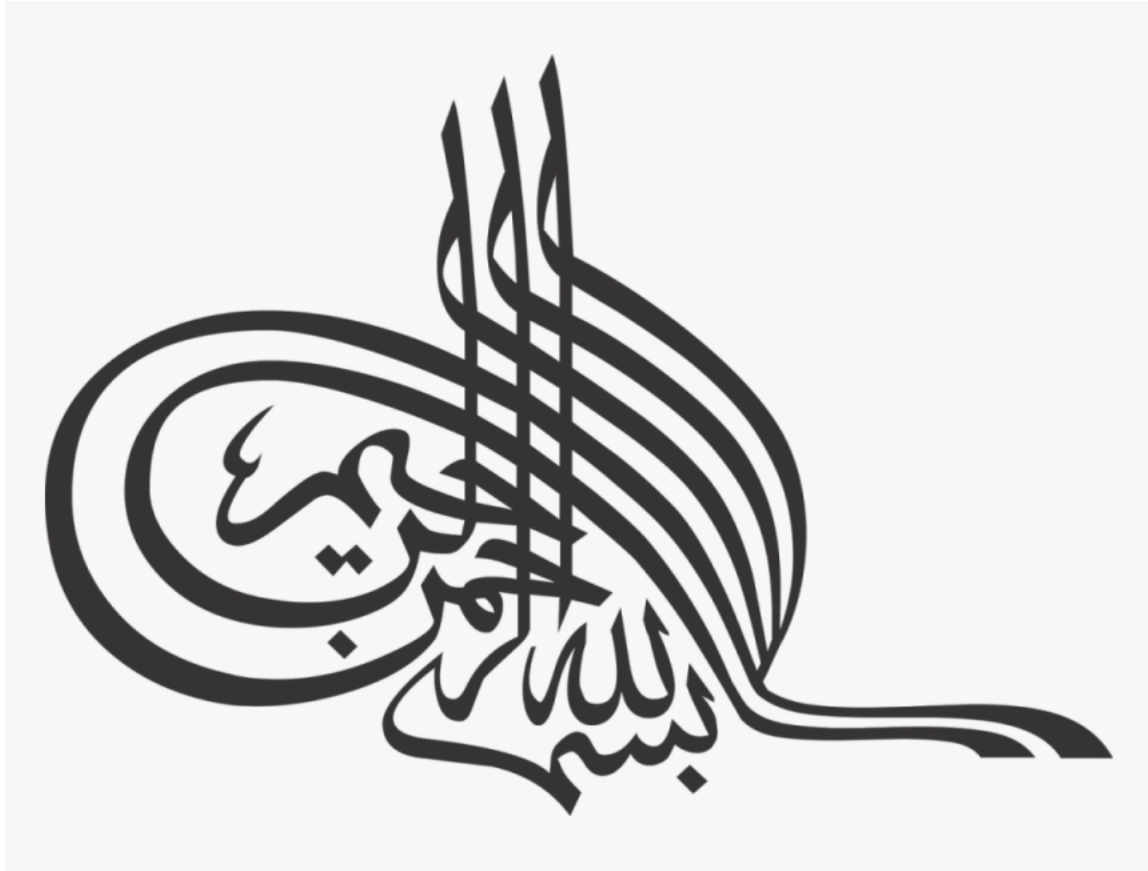
Exploring the Effectiveness of the Explicit Instruction of
Metaphors in EFL Classrooms: A Case Study of Kuwaiti Learners
of English

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IN THE NAME OF GOD, MOST GRACIOUS, MOST MERCIFUL

DEDICATION

To the loving memory of my grandmothers:

Mama Sara Alotaibi & Mama Jozah Alosaimi

(May Allah rest their souls in peace)

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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ABSTRACT

This doctoral thesis explores the possibility of mediating between theory and practice in the case of teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom. Littlemore (2003a) and Hwang (2008) identify English metaphors as a difficulty that EFL learners around the world face, explaining that learners tend to fall back on their L1 conceptual and value system to make sense of target metaphors. Many scholars (e.g. Cameron & Deignan, 2006; Gibbs & Matlock, 2008; Kövecses & Szabco, 1996) have investigated making sense of metaphors in different languages, especially in teaching English as a second and/or foreign language. Informed by a range of studies on metaphor sense-making, this study investigates the effectiveness of an explicit teaching intervention task concerning how EFL Kuwaiti learners make sense of different types of metaphors and how they culturally interpret the suitability of some metaphoric expressions.

This study utilises both a qualitative and quantitative approach that consists of a background information questionnaire, a pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaire, two focus-group interviews and a teaching intervention inspired by current research on metaphor learning/teaching. This mixed methods approach was conducted over a period of three consecutive weeks, and a delayed post questionnaire was administered two months later. To fully assess the proposed combination of methods, two control groups (one upper-intermediate level and one advanced level) were included as a baseline comparison with two experimental groups (one upper-intermediate level and one advanced level). The participants were 200 female undergraduate Kuwaiti EFL learners from the College of Business Studies at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training in Kuwait.

The data set reveals that all groups encountered difficulties in making sense of all types of metaphors, from the most universal to the most culture based. This finding disagrees with Charteris-Black's (2002) and Littlemore's (2016) findings which suggest that universal metaphors are easy for EFL learners of English. In addition, the teaching intervention designed for this research broke the cycle of the traditional grammar-translation method and encouraged the learners to use cognitive thinking in interpreting the meaning of different metaphors. This was evident in the range of sense-making strategies deployed by the learners in the period that followed the teaching intervention. This study has important pedagogical implications for teachers' professional development as it outlines how classroom puzzlement can be approached utilising applied linguistics knowledge. In addition, the study provides some tools that might assist both EFL learners and teachers in making sense of different types of English metaphors.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction and research rationale

The genesis for this study started with a classroom puzzle that I faced during my years of teaching English as a foreign language to college students in Kuwait. During these years, I was frustrated, and rather restricted, by the dominance of the grammar-translation method. This made me question my role as a language teacher. Am I only supposed to teach grammar and vocabulary lists? Do I need to bring the world of English into the classroom? Can I do things differently? If so, how? While thinking about all these questions, I was convinced that the grammar-translation method does not work for my students. This sparked my academic curiosity. This research has been inspired by the work of Judith Hanks (2009) on the philosophy of exploratory practice. According to Hanks (2015), "Exploratory Practice (EP) is a form of practitioner research in language education that aims to integrate research, learning and teaching" (ibid. : 612). In other words, exploratory research is a type of practitioner study in which students and teachers are given the opportunity to investigate their own learning and teaching approaches. It allows researchers to respond to enquiries such as "why", "how" and "what". In particular, I wondered about metaphors and their place in the English language classroom. Do I teach my students metaphors, or do I not teach them? Why? And if I want to teach them, how can I do it? These questions underpin my interest in this area of research.

I am not alone in facing the dilemma of whether or not to teach metaphors. In fact, various research has debated the status of teaching metaphors in the language classroom. While

researchers such as Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2005) call on language educators to embrace English as a lingua franca (ELF) norms and teach English using a plurilithic perspective, their arguments call for minimising or avoiding the use of idiomatic expressions or phrasal verbs when teaching English. Metaphors, according to this argument, need to be avoided to minimise intercultural misunderstandings when using English as a lingua franca. On the other hand, there is an argument that in an increasingly mobile world the linguistic needs of students are changing, and they are unpredictable. As part of their encounters with World Englishes, my learners will end up communicating with people from the Philippines as well as people from the US or UK. Therefore, as part of raising cultural awareness about how English is used in the world, I agree with Dang (2004), Low (1988) and Littlemore & Low (2006) who argue that metaphors should be taught in EFL/ ESL classrooms as they exist in everyday life (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Moreover, metaphor is part of cultural knowledge. Cameron (2003) explains that knowing how metaphors function and how they are used might help us better understand what people think and how they make sense of the world around them, as well as how they communicate with one another. Hence, studying metaphors can shed light on how people perceive and understand the world around them and how they use language to convey this. Therefore, Low (1988) calls for incorporating metaphor instruction into the second language curriculum, holding that metaphor is central to language use.

In addition, as a Kuwaiti teacher, like many other English teachers around the world, I am asked to teach using English textbooks that include metaphors. The Kuwaiti students I teach encounter significant problems, not only in learning English in general, but also in learning metaphors in particular. While metaphors are considered an important segment of English

language and culture, no such emphasis is currently placed on Kuwaiti teachers teaching them or teaching about them. The complexity of learning/ teaching metaphors to learners of English as a second or foreign language has been investigated by many scholars. Indeed, many scholars have investigated various types of figurative language expressions in different languages based on Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Deignan, Gabrys & Solska, 1997 [Polish]; Kövecses & Szabco, 1996 [Hungarian]; Yu, 1995, 2017 [Chinese]; Boers, 2000 [Dutch & French]; Cameron & Deignan, 2006 [Spanish]; Charteris-Black, 2002 [Malay]; Littlemore & Low, 2006 [Japanese, Bangladeshi-Lithuanian, Russian]). Yet, the situation regarding the difficulty in learning/ teaching metaphors has yet to change. In fact, the increasing complexity of learning/ teaching metaphors is still seen as a stumbling block for EFL teachers and learners around the world.

In this doctoral dissertation, I join the debate by arguing for the importance of teaching about metaphors in the language classroom. Here, I trace my conceptual, methodological and pedagogical journey(s) to show how I developed a metaphor teaching intervention based on mediating between theory and practice to bridge the gap between linguistic theories/ concepts regarding types of metaphors, metaphor identification processes, conceptual mapping, analogical reasoning and primitive semantics (see Chapter 3) and practical strategies for teaching metaphors (3.6.3.3). Not only did I develop this intervention, but I also explore its impact on my students' ability to make sense of metaphors. Sense-making is a key construct in my study. By using it, I draw on Starbuck and Milliken's (1988: 51) understanding of sense-making as a way "to comprehend, understand, explain, attribute, and predict". And since it encompasses a range of cognitive skills, such as understanding, explaining and predicting, the term is chosen as it

reflects the complexity of the cognitive processes involved in 'making sense' of English metaphors in the context of foreign language teaching and learning.

1.2 Research contribution

Research on teaching metaphors has mainly covered techniques for teaching universal metaphors (e.g. Boers, 2000; Chen and Lai, 2013). For example, Boers (2000) proposes using image processing as a method to raise students' awareness of metaphors. Similarly, Chen and Lai (2013) combine Boer's (2000) image processing method with the metaphor mapping approach developed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) to raise students' awareness of metaphors. While both methods are beneficial, these studies have exclusively focused on universal metaphors. In addition, using imagery processing as a method is rather limiting, because not all metaphors can be presented visually. Another teaching method proposed by Cheng (2000) suggests teaching EFL metaphors to learners as formulaic expressions through memorisation, where students match Chinese expressions to English equivalents, accompanied by examples of Chinese sentences alongside their English translation. This method of translating and memorising is useful and might work with universal metaphors, but it would be rather challenging with culture-based metaphors or with new metaphors that students do not memorise. The chance of encountering new metaphors is something teachers should bear in mind. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphors exist in everyday life, which in return means that metaphors exist in everyday language, and language by its nature evolves and changes (Nowak & Krakauer, 1999: 8028). As a result, using memorization as a method will not help to prepare students to deal with new and unfamiliar metaphors they might encounter outside the classroom in the real world. Another

method is proposed by Toyokura (2016) who argues that the metaphorical competence of EFL learners can be enhanced through translation combined with conceptual thinking, which is fruitful and will be modified and used in this study. However, it does not focus on how EFL learners make sense of English culture-based metaphors nor on how EFL learners culturally associate either positive or negative connotations with English metaphors.

Furthermore, the importance of teaching culture-based metaphors has been discussed by different researchers (e.g. Hwang, 2008; Littlemore, 2003a), and both these stress the importance of raising EFL learners' awareness of culture-based metaphors. Littlemore (2003a, 2003b, 2004, 2006) has done outstanding work on learning/ teaching metaphors. She proposed the use of an analogical reasoning method with conceptual mapping to raise her students' awareness of different types of metaphors in one study (Littlemore 2004c). In another study, Littlemore (2003a) compared the value system of the language learner's home country (Bangladesh) with that of the target language (e.g. Great Britain) and found that the learner's own value system affects their understanding of L2, and they interpreted metaphors "in ways that supported, rather than contradicted their own value systems and schemata" (*ibid.* : 282). Littlemore (2003a: 283) explains that there are two main elements that affect learners' comprehension of metaphors: a) their conceptual system, and b) their value system which is based on their culture. On the other hand, Littlemore did not combine analogical reasoning with how students' value systems affect EFL learners' metaphor comprehension in a single study. In addition, most research involves a small number of students, whereas this study involves a large number of students, resulting in a wide range of responses to and insights into metaphor sense-making.

Studies on EFL learners' awareness and understanding of culture-based metaphors that do not have a direct equivalent in their L1 language and culture are still under-researched. Also, exploring how EFL students perceive these conceptual metaphors and whether they associate them with positive or negative connotations is another issue that has received little attention. My aim is to arrive at a better understanding of how EFL learners make sense of different types of metaphors, especially culture-based metaphors, in addition to exploring the effect of the learner's value system on making sense of these metaphors. Therefore, this study contributes conceptually by providing an example of mediating between theory and practice. It develops a conceptual framework that utilises knowledge from both cognitive linguistics and applied linguistics. It also contributes methodologically, while previous research has looked at analogical reasoning as separate from exploring the effect of the learner's value system on making sense of metaphors, in my study I aim to bring them together to explore different types of metaphors. Methodologically, I have developed a teaching intervention that combines conceptual mapping, analogical reasoning and semantic primitives (see Chapter 3) and which is based on the study's conceptual framework. In addition, this study's pedagogical contribution is to raise awareness of learning/ teaching metaphors and not to keep them in the dark, like Dang (2004), but rather make room for exploring metaphors in the EFL classroom.

1.3 The status of English in Kuwait

Kuwait is not a 'typical' English as a foreign language context. That is to say, it is not a context where English is restricted to the classroom setting. Kuwait is a highly diverse context, "the country is in fact linguistically diverse since the expatriate community constitutes about two-

thirds of the population” (Tryzna & Al Sharoufi, 2017: 79). There are many foreign workers who come from different countries including the USA, UK, India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Georgia, Turkey, Kenya, Ethiopia, Korea, the Philippines, Egypt, Lebanon, Iraq, Syria, Jordan, Iran and Armenia (Tryzna & Al Sharoufi, 2017: 78). In this context, English is the means of communication. It is part of our life in Kuwait, whether we like it or not. Many foreign workers use English as their second or third language and bring their own linguistic norms when they communicate in English. Therefore, English is a lingua franca in Kuwait, not just a foreign language. This leads me to question how we can prepare our learners for lingua franca use. In the work of Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2005), they argue that lingua franca English should not include any figurative language such as metaphors and idioms but should be simplified. Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2005) perceive English as a lingua franca, a simplified version of English for use between speakers of other languages. What is missing from this ELF conceptualisation is that it does not include references to communication between learners of English and speakers of English as a first language. If you look at the definition of ELF English as a lingua franca as explained by Seidlhofer (2005), the term “has emerged as a way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages” (ibid. : 339). In other words, it is about the use of English as a tool for communication between speakers whose first language is not English, but in the Kuwaiti context it is much more complex than that. Kuwaiti learners are in a position where they communicate with speakers whose first language is English and with speakers whose first language is not English. Because of this complexity in the Kuwaiti context, English teachers in Kuwait need to prepare their students for unexpected communicative encounters that they have outside the classroom. There are many British,

American and Australian schools in Kuwait. In addition, there are many people from Britain, the US, Canada, Australia and New Zealand in Kuwait. Given the linguistic diversity in the country, it seems impractical to rely exclusively on Jenkins' (2009) understanding of ELF. Therefore, to be 'honest' to my setting, as Canagajah (2014) advocates, teachers ought to support their students in "learning new varieties of English, new genres of communication, and new modes of negotiating language diversity" (ibid. : 783). This research attempts to respond to Badwan's (2020, 2017) call for language educators to construct 'honest' teaching pedagogies that are reflective of language use in modern cultures, in this case the Kuwaiti context.

Having discussed linguistic diversity in Kuwait, I now turn to presenting the status of English in Kuwaiti mainstream education. Since the end of the nineteenth century, English has been a significant language in Kuwait. During the era of the British protectorate in Kuwait, which lasted from 1899 to 1961, English was first utilised as the language of administration and international affairs. As a result, in the 1910s, English language learning and teaching, along with mathematics, geography and history, became part of the local Kuwaiti school curriculum (Al-Yaseen, 2000: 21). According to Al-Yaseen (2000: 23- 4) the discovery of oil in Kuwait in the 1930s, as well as the rapidly expanding oil-producing industry, played a major role in paving the way for English language to be implemented in Kuwaiti mainstream education. The oil industry in Kuwait required local Kuwaiti workers to learn and communicate in English, which led to the development of English for specific purposes, known as 'petroleum English' (Karmani, 2005). Thus, the country's economic progress, which is strongly tied to oil production and technology imports, led to the formalisation of the education system and the further development of English's prominence in the region as a medium for international communication (Tryzna & Al

Sharoufi, 2017: 79). “There are about 1145 schools in Kuwait, at all levels from kindergarten to secondary. Out of this total, 664 are public and 481 are private schools” (Kuwait Education Indicators Report 2007, p.18, as cited in Tryzna, & Al Sharoufi, 2017: 80). In the government school system, “During the year 1994, English was introduced as a school subject at the primary school level which meant Kuwaiti students study English from age six to age eighteen” (Alrabah et al. , 2016: 2), which means that Kuwaiti students learn English language as a subject for 12 years, “delivered in 45 min lessons five times a week” (Tryzna, & Al Sharoufi, 2017: 80). In the private sector there are different types of schools, including bilingual Arabic-English schools where selected subjects are taught in English and some in Arabic. Or there are private English Schools (e.g. British, American) where English is used as the main language of instruction and Arabic is used to teach selected subjects. While there are also:

Private national curriculum schools (e.g. Indian, Pakistani, French, Filipino) with English either as the language of instruction or as a second language, with robust national language programs and teachers from respective ethnic backgrounds. (Tryzna, & Al Sharoufi, 2017: 80)

The importance of teaching English in Kuwait is currently supported by the demands of the labour market in Kuwait, which mainly relies on the expatriate workforce in the private sector (Tryzna, & Al Sharoufi, 2017: 79). Another key aspect of Kuwaitis’ continued and rising interest in English as a medium of communication is their ability to access English through travel and the use of advanced technologies such as the Internet, which connects them globally with different English speakers around the world (Al-Yaseen, 2000: 24).

1.4 Research Questions

This study focuses on how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of different types of English metaphors and explores the impact of a metaphor-teaching intervention on learners' ability to make sense of metaphors. In particular, the study seeks to address the following questions:

1. What strategies do Kuwaiti EFL learners use to make sense of English metaphors?
2. How do Kuwaiti EFL learners attach cultural associations to metaphors?
3. To what extent can an explicit teaching intervention that utilises conceptual mapping, semantic primitives and the use of analogical reasoning enhance the learning of metaphors?

This study will not only help Kuwaiti teachers and students in the teaching and learning of English metaphors, it is also hoped to be an attempt to suggest a method to help overcome some of the difficulties EFL learners face in learning metaphors and promote the importance of learning/teaching metaphors in EFL classrooms around the world.

1.5 The thesis' structure

Now that I have introduced the focus of this study, I will finish the introduction by presenting the outline of this paper. In Chapter 2, I present the theoretical background to this research in three main sections. The first section introduces metaphor in general, with an overview of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) and methods of identifying metaphor and concludes with types of metaphor. The second section focuses on teaching metaphor to EFL learners. It also explains why I opted to use the term sense-making in my research. In addition, it discusses the problems an

EFL learner faces in learning/ teaching metaphor, the strategies EFL learners use to make sense of different types of metaphors and the effect of metaphors on EFL learners' communicative competence. It also surveys previous research on teaching metaphor to EFL learners and current gaps in the field. The third section introduces the relational role of culture in metaphor learning/ teaching. The theoretical background is followed by the methodology section in Chapter 3, which outlines major methodological choices and decisions, tracing the empirical side of the study, and highlighting the procedural aspects of how data generation and data analysis are managed. The chapter also addresses the opportunities of researching multilingually, notes the validity and reliability of gathered data and concludes with the limitations of the study. In Chapter 4, I move on to present the research findings, which are presented in the same order in which the research tools were administered; a) Analysis of Background Information survey, b) Analysis of Focus Group interviews, and c) Analysis of Questionnaires. In Chapter 5, I discuss five key findings in the light of theory, answer the research questions and move beyond them towards a more aggregate understanding of how learners make sense of metaphors. Finally, Chapter 6 is devoted to research reflections, the contribution to knowledge this thesis makes, the implications for practice, limitations and directions for future research. Having outlined subsequent sections, I will now begin by developing the theoretical framework of my study.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Metaphor is an important tool that is commonly used in a variety of aspects of our daily life. For example, metaphors can be found in the everyday talk of adults as well as children, in TV shows and programmes, in social media, in school textbooks, in newspaper articles and advertisements. Over the last few decades, the traditional view of metaphor, which saw it as a stylistic way of expressing ideas, has shifted dramatically, and it is now generally believed to be a reflection of language and thought about the world (Grady, 2007: 188; Ungerer & Schmid, 2013: 118). This study engages with the literature on metaphor theory, the role of L2 explicit instruction and Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) in metaphor learning/ teaching, the difficulties EFL learners encounter when learning metaphors and the teaching practices proposed in the field to overcome some of these difficulties.

This chapter is divided into three parts to provide an engaging narrative of the literature that guides the current investigation. The order of the sections is informed by a thematic order that begins with a look at what metaphor is, why it is important to teach metaphors to EFL learners, and it ends by discussing the relationship between metaphor and culture.

The **first section** discusses what metaphor is, how it works and the different views on metaphor in the literature. The section also provides an overview of Conceptual Metaphor Theory, and the methods used to identify metaphors, as well as presenting the different types of metaphors.

The **second section** addresses how metaphors are taught in the EFL classroom. I also introduce why I opted to use the term “Metaphor Sense-making” in my thesis. In addition, I explore literature that looks at the strategies EFL learners use to make sense of L2 metaphors, as well as the difficulties EFL learners encounter in learning metaphors.

The **third section** looks at the relation between metaphor and culture. Finally, I conclude with the role of intercultural awareness in learning/ teaching metaphors to EFL learners.

These three sections, discussed together, provide a significant amount of depth and breadth, which the study aspires to engage with and contribute to. The final remarks in this section pave the way for the study's research questions, which will be addressed at the end of this chapter.

2.2 What is a Metaphor?

Traditional metaphor theorists (e.g. Black, 1962; Searle, 1979) suggest that a metaphor is a characteristic of language, a combination of words used to show similarities between two compared elements in an artistic manner or for rhetorical purposes. However, the view that a metaphor is mainly related to literal or philosophical discourse has changed since the cognitive linguistic framework was devised in Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) work *Metaphors We Live By*. They argue that “our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature” (ibid. : 3). In other words, metaphor has more depth; it exists in everyday life, in how people conceptualize and define the world around them, and what they experience and do is “very much a matter of metaphor” (ibid. : 3).

In the light of these different views on metaphors, there exist various ideas on what a metaphor is and how researchers define it in the literature. According to Lee (2005: 6), a

metaphor in its fundamental stage can be seen as a tool to conceptualize one experience domain in terms of another. In other words, a metaphor is a way to use one idea or concept to understand a different one. Lee's understanding of what a metaphor is also shared by Semino (2008), who defines a metaphor as a "phenomenon whereby we talk and, potentially, think about something in terms of something else" (ibid.:11). A word can be considered metaphorical by cognitive linguists if it is used to express an idea other than its basic core meaning and can be understood by comparison with its basic meaning. For example, Deignan (2005) states:

...a metaphor is a word or expression that is used to talk about an entity or quality other than that referred to by its core, or most basic meaning. This non-core use expresses a perceived relationship with the core meaning of the word, and in many cases between two semantic fields.

(ibid.:34)

Metaphors can also be identified by considering the normal context or domain of the word. According to Charteris-Black (2004:21) a metaphor is a "shift in the use of a word or phrase from the context or the domain in which it is expected to occur to another context or domain where it is not expected to occur, thereby causing semantic tension". Thus, metaphor entails mapping one idea or concept onto another in a way that differs from the anticipated or core meaning of a certain word or phrase. Furthermore, Grady (2007) emphasizes the cognitive function of metaphor, expressing that metaphor refers to "a pattern of conceptual association, rather than to an individual metaphorical usage or a linguistic convention" (ibid: 188). In other words, instead of a metaphor being simply a linguistic expression, it also includes a way of thinking conceptually about the world.

Taking into account the different definitions of metaphor mentioned above by various researchers, these definitions share the same elements that were first introduced in Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) study, *Metaphors We Live By*. First, metaphor is a feature of ideas, and not of words. Second, the function of metaphor is not only to serve an artistic goal, it is also used to better understand specific concepts. Third, metaphor is not necessarily based on the similarities between two entities being compared and identified. Finally, metaphor is an inseparable part of human thought and understanding.

That said, I draw my definition of metaphor from Lakoff and Johnson (1980) who argue that "metaphor is pervasive both in thought and everyday life" (Kövecses,2010:x), it is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is applied to an object or action to which it is not literally applicable. In other words, metaphors exist in everyday life. The creation and use of a metaphor is a conceptual process that involves treating an abstract entity in terms of a more concrete concept (see section 2.2.1 below for more information on conceptual metaphors). For example, in the expression 'He shot down all my arguments' (ibid.:8), the conceptual process involves treating the abstract entity, 'ARGUMENTS' (i.e. a target domain – for more information see 2.2.1.), in terms of a more concrete concept, 'WAR' (i.e. a source domain). In this sense, the metaphorical expression uses the properties of the concrete concept 'shooting down in war' to describe the abstract entity of 'arguments or arguing'.

Given the importance of metaphors in the everyday use of language, this research argues that metaphors should be explicitly taught in the English language classroom. As such, the current study focuses on exploring the impact of explicit instruction on teaching metaphor. Having

presented different definitions of metaphors, the next section discusses how metaphor is viewed in cognitive linguistics, with reference to Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT).

2.2.1 Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT)

With the development of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), first proposed by Lakoff & Johnson (1980) in their influential work *Metaphors We Live By*, an essential change in cognitive linguistics occurred. Rather than viewing metaphor as a mere literary device that is only used to compare two similar entities as proposed by traditional metaphor theorists, Lakoff & Johnson (1980) argue that in everyday life metaphor is omnipresent, structuring how we perceive and conceptualize the world around us. In other words, they believe that human thought processes are largely metaphorical. Hence, the human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. Since CMT was devised, it has influenced several academic fields and research studies. The main belief of CMT is that metaphor structures both the human process of thinking and knowledge. Metaphors are important when understanding abstract language and concepts. According to Deignan (2005:13), metaphor is grounded in physical experience, and metaphors represent different perspectives, and therefore ideologies, about the world. Moreover, CMT introduces the idea of embodied cognition (i.e., metaphors are based on embodied human experiences). For example, people metaphorically see Affection as Warmth. This is due to their earlier experience and the connection in “our childhood experiences between the loving embrace of our parents and the comfort of bodily warmth that accompanies it” (Kövecses, 2002:2). Metaphor, in this sense, is the tool which the human mind uses to think of one thing in terms of something else. It provides a means for understanding something abstract in terms of

something concrete. Thus, it creates a “social, cultural and psychological reality” (Kövecses, 2002: xi). In other words, metaphors can reflect social groups’ ideas, beliefs and the way people perceive the world around them. Thus, it is crucial to make metaphors an important element in language learning by connecting the language learner to the target language’s real world.

In order for EFL learners to make sense of metaphors in the target language, it is essential to understand how metaphors work and it is necessary to first understand some terminology used to describe the components of a metaphor. The two domains of metaphor are known as the Tenor and the Vehicle, according to I. A. Richards (1936). The Tenor is what a person tries to discuss, and the Vehicle gives information about how to discuss it, e.g., “LOVE IS A JOURNEY”. The Tenor is LOVE, and the Vehicle is a JOURNEY. It is important to note that Tenor and Vehicle are not the only terms used to describe the domains of metaphor in the literature. Kövecses (2002:4) explains that the two domains are known by various terms in different studies of metaphorical mapping:

1- Richard (1936), uses the terms:

Vehicle (the domain from which concepts originate)

Tenor (the domain to which concepts are mapped)

2- Lakoff and Johnson (1980) use the terms:

Source (the domain from which concepts originate)

Target (the domain to which concepts are mapped).

3- Gentner (1983) uses the terms:

Base (the domain from which concepts originate)

Target (the domain to which concepts are mapped)

Therefore, it is important to clarify which terms will be used in this thesis. For the purposes of this study, I adopt Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) terminology by referring to the source and target domains. This terminology is selected because Lakoff and Johnson's conceptual metaphor theory is referenced throughout the study. Having discussed the different terms used in the conceptual mapping literature, I now move on to discuss the process of metaphor mapping.

In CMT, Turner and Lakoff (1989: 38–9) highlight that metaphorical concepts are generally viewed as unidirectional in which a more concrete source domain is mapped onto a more abstract target domain in order to understand more abstract domains (Kövecses, 2010:7). Because metaphorical concepts are based on human experience, source domains are typically physical, concrete areas such as the human body, plants, animals, cooking and food, heat and cold, light and darkness (Kövecses, 2010: 18– 23). More abstract concepts like feelings, morality, thinking, human relationships and time, on the other hand, are common target domains (Kövecses, 2010: 23– 27). Based on CMT, mapping concrete sources onto more abstract target domains, conceptual metaphors “can serve the purpose of understanding intangible, and hence difficult-to-understand concepts” (Kövecses, 2010: 29).

To sum up, cognitive linguistics highlights metaphor as a pervasive component of everyday life, structuring processes of human thought, perception and conceptualization (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Metaphor can be regarded as a tool for “conceptualizing one domain of experience in terms of another” (Lee, 2005:6). In short, Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) has changed the way many people see metaphor, raising it from a mere literary device to a method of structuring our thinking. In CMT, more concrete source domains are mapped onto more abstract target domains to form metaphorical thought and language, a process vital to

understand and express abstract concepts and thoughts. Furthermore, Cameron (2003) explains that knowing how metaphors function and how they are used might help us better understand what people think and how they make sense of the world around them, as well as how they communicate with one another. Therefore, in the following section, I briefly introduce the difference between linguistic and conceptual metaphors in CMT, which is an important element in metaphor learning/ teaching.

2.2.1.1. Linguistic and Conceptual Metaphors in CMT

Lakoff and Johnson's work (1980) integrates a wide range of philosophical enquiry and cognitive aspects into a new framework for understanding human cognition, experience and action. They characterise metaphors with the formula A IS B, where the target domain (A) is understood through the source domain (B), based on a set of mappings that exist between components of (A) and components of (B) . This is the difference between conceptual metaphor and linguistic metaphor, the latter being concerned with metaphoric expressions.

Accordingly, it is necessary to differentiate between two uses of the term metaphor: conceptual metaphor and linguistic metaphor. A linguistic metaphor is a linguistic expression which conveys an underlying conceptual metaphor. For example, a conceptual metaphor, such as ARGUMENT IS WAR, is manifested in the following metaphorical linguistic expressions: "Your claims are indefensible", "I demolished his argument" or "His criticism was right on target" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 4). In all these expressions, an abstract concept such as ARGUMENT is thus understood in terms of another more concrete domain such as WAR. In this case, a process of mapping happens from the structure of the source domain –WAR in the previous example –

onto the structure of the target domain – ARGUMENT in the same example – as elaborated by Ungerer and Schmid (1996: 120). Kövecses (2005: 6) explains that, in general, source and target domains cannot be reversed. For example, we do not talk about WAR as ARGUMENT. In other words, the metaphorical process is unidirectional, from the abstract to the concrete domain. In addition, Kövecses (2010) explains that deeper analysis both reveals a great deal of patterning among linguistic metaphors and demonstrates how detailed and specific mappings can motivate subtle differences between linguistic expressions of the same conceptual metaphor (ibid: 31- 32).

The different explanations of metaphor, how they are understood and how they relate to human experience and thought, raise the question of whether human experience of love and warmth, for example, is universal or non-universal. The following section discusses the universality of metaphors and the main divisions between “primary” and “complex” metaphors and their relation to culture.

2.2.1.2. The Universality of Metaphors

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) believe that human beings are universally endowed with the ability to use language metaphorically. They also discuss whether all cultures share identical perceptions of the world. A certain class of metaphors seems to be universal, arising from our physical interaction with the surrounding environment. Consequently, they are products of such embodiment, e.g., GOOD IS UP, which is a conceptual orientational metaphor that arises from our spatial orientation. Kövecses (2005:3) classifies metaphors into two main groups: primary metaphors and complex metaphors, where: a) primary metaphors are universal metaphors that are a product of universal experience, e.g., LOVE IS A JOURNEY, this is a concept to which most

people can relate. Nevertheless, not all universal experiences lead to universal metaphors; b) complex metaphor is more culture-based metaphors, they are a combination of primary metaphors to form complex metaphors. The combination of primary metaphors to form complex metaphors is more language specific. Kövecses (2005:4) explains that “Cultures greatly influence what complex conceptual metaphors emerge from primary metaphors.” This explains the non-universality of the majority of complex metaphors. For example:

(1)

“ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAINER.” (Kövecses, 2005: 261)

In this example, hot fluid is identified as acetylene, which is a hazardous substance. The passive event of an explosion is removed by directing acetylene towards the target, anger. Kövecses (2005:215) states that this complex metaphor comprises several basic conceptual metaphors, namely: 1) the body is a container of emotions, 2) emotions are substances, 3) the intensity of emotion is HEAT. Complex metaphors are far less likely to be universal than either of the basic metaphors from which they derive.

As a way of critiquing Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) conceptual metaphor theory, Barsalou (1999a) argues that Lakoff and Johnson (1980) claim that feelings like anger “are experienced solely as abstractions, by way of metaphors”, and states that we have direct embodied experience of feelings (Ritchie 2006:40). Based on the number of metaphors we use and come across, and how we seem to process most metaphors like any other types of linguistic expressions, I support Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) conceptual metaphor theory. I agree that we have conceptual metaphors embedded in our minds and that they seem to be universal. However, they are the creators behind all conceptual domains, and one could discuss to what

extent they all are “true” and appropriate. In addition, different theories have emerged in the field to supplement or complement CMT, such as Blending Theory (BT) which I discuss in detail the following section. Next are the reasons that led me to select CMT.

2.2.1.3. Why CMT and not Blending Theory (BT)?

This section does not seek to prove the validity of CMT theory over Blending Theory (BT); rather, the goal is to provide a theoretical foundation for the teaching intervention used in this research. Nonetheless, it is important to discuss the reasons for selecting CMT over other existing theories, such as blending theory (BT). First, a brief introduction is provided to the directionality of mapping, followed by a definition of BT and the reasons for choosing CMT. As stated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), there is a connection regarding the directionality between the two domains. One school of thought believes that mapping is unidirectional, from source domain to target domain. The main proponents of this view are Lakoff and Johnson (1980). Conversely, there is an opinion that mapping between the two domains is bi-directional. The main protagonist of this claim is Black (1979), who states that mapping occurs from source domain to target domain, and vice versa. A third school of thought suggests that direction arises when the target and source domains are blended (Croft and Cruse, 2004).

I will now present an explanation of the similarities and difference between CMT and BT, and the reasons for selecting CMT for this study. Turner (1997: 93) defines conceptual blending as “a fundamental instrument of the everyday mind, used in our basic construal of all our realities, from the social to the scientific”. In addition, BT involves a “mental operation that leads to new meanings, global insights and conceptual compressions” (ibid.). According to Fauconnier

and Turner (1996:1), BT sees metaphor interpretation as the activation of relevant conceptual structures and places comprising four mental spaces: two partially matched input spaces, a generic space and a blended space. Croft and Cruse (2004:207) argue that BT does not compete with Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) model; rather, the former presupposes the latter. According to Croft and Cruse (2004:207), CMT works with two domains and the correspondence between them, while BT operates within four mental spaces. They go on to state that whereas CMT domains are permanent structures, the spaces within BT are partial and temporary representational structures constructed at the point of speaking. Thus, Turner and Lakoff's (1989) unidirectional approach appears more plausible and, therefore, will be used in this study. In the following section I shed light on the characteristics of conceptual metaphor.

2.2.1.4. Characteristics of Conceptual Metaphors

Conceptual metaphors can be characterised by their functions into three categories: structural, ontological and orientational. This section defines each of these categories and gives examples to show the differences between them. To begin with, structural metaphor facilitates the comprehension of (A) by means of the structure of source (B). For example, "the concept of time is structured according to the motion space" (Kövecses, 2010: 37– 38). Thus, we understand time in the following mapping:

"Times are things

The passing of time is motion."

(ibid., 37– 38)

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 81), structural metaphors enable the structure of one concept to be expressed in terms of another, e.g., ARGUMENT IS WAR; to understand “a conversation as an argument involves being able to superimpose the multidimensional structure of the concept WAR upon the corresponding structure CONVERSATION” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 81). Thus, this provides a multidimensional gestalt, whereby we are addressing a structured whole, rather than an unspecified means of experiential information. The second category is ontological metaphors; they bring new abstract entities to abstract targets and thus allow us to see the outline structure of these metaphors, for example.

<i>“Source Domain</i>		<i>Target Domain</i>
<i>PHYSICAL OBJECT</i>	➔	<i>NONPHYSICAL OR ABSTRACT ENTITIES</i>
<i>(e.g. the mind)</i>		
	➔	<i>EVENTS (e.g. going to the races),</i> <i>ACTIONS (e.g. giving someone a call).”</i>
		(Kövecses, 2010, 37– 38)

Third, orientational metaphor is concerned with the coherence of these target concepts in the conceptual system, whereby target concepts are conceptualised uniformly. For example, the following concepts are distinguished by an “upward” orientation, and their “opposites” by a “downward” orientation:

“MORE IS UP; LESS IS DOWN: Speak up, please. Keep your voice down, please.”

(Kövecses, 2010: 37– 38)

Grady (1997, 1999) states that metaphorical concepts organise entire systems, especially in terms of understanding experiences pertaining to objects, actions as substances, and states as

containers. Structural metaphors, ontological metaphors and orientational metaphors contain the same basic formula, A IS B. Moreover, in certain cases, these metaphors occur simultaneously. Metaphor comprehension and metaphor mapping have been linked to learning/teaching English by many researchers, including Boers (2000), Cameron (2003) and Littlemore (2000). They argue that metaphor comprehension and awareness enable students to discover structures in metaphor that would remain unknown without mapping. (see 2.3.3 for further explanation). In addition, cognitive and social studies have shown that conceptual fluency is achieved by learners who know how the language is encoded on the basis of metaphorical reasoning (Danesi, 2003). Gibbs (1994) agrees with Danesi that metaphor is at the basis of abstract thought and common discourse, although learners may not be aware of its presence. Furthermore, Cameron (2003) explains that knowing how metaphors function and how they are used might help us better understand what people think and how they make sense of the world around them, as well as how they communicate with one another. Therefore, it is important to be able to identify a metaphor in order to understand it. Steen was one of the Pragglejaz Group (2007) who developed a systematic way of identifying metaphors that is called the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP), they try to address this issue by describing five steps for accurately identifying conceptual metaphors in any given linguistic expression. This study adapts the MIP approach used by the Pragglejaz Group (2007) to identify and select metaphors. The following section addresses What MIP is and how it is implemented in this study.

2.2.1.5. *Identifying metaphors using MIP*

The results of the Pragglejaz Group (2007:13) proved that the MIP method can be used to produce reliable metaphor identification, and so it has been widely adopted (Littlemore, 2002, Charteris-Black, 2002). MIP is a method comprising step-by-step instructions for readers or researchers to help identify metaphors. The first step in this process is to read an entire text to establish a general understanding of its meaning. Then, the reader should identify lexical units they think constitute a metaphorical expression. Next, for each lexical unit, the reader should establish the contextual meaning and determine whether it has other more basic meanings in other contexts. The reader establishes contextual meaning by focusing primarily on the context and words before and after the lexical unit. Furthermore, the reader determines other basic meanings by drawing on their existing knowledge of the words' basic, contemporary or current meanings. Finally, if the lexical unit has a more basic, current or contemporary meaning in other contexts, the reader should determine whether this contrasts with the contextual meaning in the current text but can be understood in comparison. If so, this lexical unit is marked as a metaphorical expression (Pragglejaz Group, 2007: 3).

An example of applying this process to a metaphorical expression is as follows:

For years, Sonia Gandhi has struggled to convince Indians that she is fit to wear the mantle of the political dynasty into which she married, let alone to become premier.

(Pragglejaz, 2007: 4)

The example above demonstrates the steps used to apply MIP; after selecting the example, making extractions from the passage through the use of slashes to set boundaries between each lexical unit is applied:

*/ For / years /, Sonia Gandhi / has / struggled / to / convince / Indians /
that / she / is / fit / to / wear / the / mantle / of / the / political / dynasty /
into / which / she / married /, let alone / to / become / premier /.*

(Pragglejaz, 2007: 4)

After setting the boundaries for each lexical unit, each is considered in turn, starting from the beginning of the sentence, to see if it is metaphorical. Only the first five lexical units are displayed below to demonstrate the processes used in this study to identify metaphors; the metaphors used in this study are identified via MIP and can be found in K.

(1) For

- (a) Contextual meaning: in this context, the preposition ‘for’ indicates temporal duration; it introduces a noun phrase (years) that indicates the period of time spanned by the action/ process referred to by the main verb phrase in the sentence (has struggled).
- (b) Basic meaning: the preposition ‘for’ can be used to introduce the beneficiary or recipient of an action, often involving the transfer of a physical entity from one person to another (e.g. I’ve brought a cup of tea for you). This can be regarded as the basic meaning of the preposition. This is the first sense of ‘for’ in the contemporary dictionary used.
- (c) Contextual meaning versus Basic meaning: the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning; however, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. Used metaphorically? No.

(2) years

- (a) Contextual meaning: in this context, 'years' indicates a long period encompassing several calendar years. The use of 'years' emphasises the length of the relevant period, rather than demarcating it with any precision.
- (b) Basic meaning: the most basic meaning of year is the cyclical period of 365 days, in which the earth completes a full revolution around the sun.
- (c) Contextual meaning versus Basic meaning: the contextual meaning is related very closely to the basic meaning, without significant contrast. Used metaphorically? No.

(3) Sonia Gandhi

- (a) Contextual meaning: the proper name refers to a specific, uniquely identifiable individual in a particular historical and geographical context.
- (b) Basic meaning: the proper name does not have a more basic meaning.
- (c) Contextual meaning versus Basic meaning: the contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Used metaphorically? No.

(4) has

- (a) Contextual meaning: in this context, 'has' is the operator in the verb phrase 'has struggled', where it signals agreement with the singular grammatical subject, 'Sonia Gandhi', and expresses an aspectual meaning. In other words, it indicates that the relevant action/ process has begun but is not yet complete.
- (b) Basic meaning: as an auxiliary verb, 'to have' does not have a more basic meaning. As a lexical verb, 'to have' has a more basic meaning of possession (prototypically involving physical objects).

(c) Contextual meaning versus Basic meaning: if we have 'to have' as an auxiliary verb, the contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. If we consider the lexeme 'to have' as a whole, the contextual meaning contrasts with a more basic meaning. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood compared with the basic meaning. Used metaphorically? No.

(5) struggled

(a) Contextual meaning: in this context, 'struggled' indicates effort, difficulty and a lack of success in achieving a goal; namely, changing other people's negative views and attitudes.

(b) Basic meaning: the basic meaning of the verb 'to struggle' is to use one's physical strength against someone or something: for example, 'She picked up the child, but he struggled and kicked.' The evidence cited in the etymological dictionary consulted (Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles) also suggests that this meaning is historically prior (p. 2,157).

(c) Contextual meaning versus Basic meaning: the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison: we can understand abstract effort, difficulty, opposition and conflict in terms of physical effort, difficulty, opposition and conflict. Used metaphorically? Yes.

(Pragglejaz, 2007: 4– 6)

In summary, only one of the five lexical units above is judged as being used metaphorically. It is worth noting that the Pragglejaz Group states that agreeing on whether a lexical unit is metaphorical or not is not simple. This is because some people might make different decisions and give diverse reasons for supporting the same judgements as to whether a specific

word can be used metaphorically. This opinion is also shared by Littlemore and Low (2006a) who argue that identifying conceptual metaphors is "informed guesswork", because while it is very easy to create new conceptual metaphors, proving that they exist is extremely difficult (pp.13–14). However, overall, MIP provides reliable steps for researchers to follow in the identification of metaphors (Pragglejaz, 2007: 13). In my research I opted to use MIP in identifying metaphors used in textbooks and teaching materials. The following section gives a brief overview of why MIP is more suitable in this research than other methods used in the field to identify metaphors.

2.2.1.6. Methods for linguistic metaphor Identification, from MIP to MIPVU

According to Steen et al. (2010: 14), “MIP is a tool for linguistic metaphor identification in natural discourse”, this tool can be used in different sectors such as sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, discourse analysts, cognitive linguistics etc. The MIP approach “spells out that basic meanings do not have to be the most frequent meanings of lexical units” (Semino, 2008: 14). The idea behind MIP is to be able to find expressions in language that are possibly metaphorical in cognition (Steen et al., 2010: 9). MIP as a tool to identify metaphors has proven very successful and been used by many scholars, e.g. Semino (2008), Charteris Black (2000), Littlemore (2015) and Littlemore & Law (2006a). However, since the formation of the Pragglejaz Group (2007), there has been a need to identify not only the linguistic forms of metaphor but also conceptual structures that MIP does not provide (Steen et al., 2010: 8). Therefore, a new refined method for linguistic Identification that is largely based on MIP was developed by Steen et al. (2010) and this is an extension of MIP. This extension is called MIPVU. The VU stands for Vrije Universiteit, the

university in Amsterdam where the work was done. Steen et al. (2010) argue that MIPVU is more reliable than MIP. There are several differences between the MIP approach and MIPVU:

a) The MIP approach conceptualizes metaphor as a matter of cross-domain mappings, in a conceptual structure, that are expressed in language, whereas the MIPVU approach does not restrict itself to indirect expressions of metaphor, but also includes direct expressions such as simile, analogy etc. (Steen et al., 2010: 21).

b) The MIP approach operationalizes metaphor at the level of language, testing whether a lexical unit is used indirectly by similarity or comparison, whereas the MIPVU approach goes further to test the level of conceptual structure, if concepts are used indirectly.

c) The MIP approach is limited to metaphorical meaning to the contemporary language user, whereas the MIPVU approach considers historical metaphor, or metaphor in morphology, syntax etc.

d) The MIP approach does not standardize the data collection process explicitly with reference to a dictionary, whereas the MIPVU approach does standardize data collection explicitly with reference to a dictionary.

e) The MIP approach focuses on semiotic structure means and does not make claims about cognitive processes and products like MIPVU (Steen et al., 2010: 21).

Steen et al. (2010: 9) argue that there are some interpretative issues regarding what it means to do metaphor identification, and these have to be considered if metaphor in language is to be identified accurately. They involve linguistic, conceptual and behavioural analysis of metaphor in usage. However, there is some differentiation between these:

- a) Linguistic analysis deals with whether a metaphorical expression has an indirect meaning that potentially involves looking at some contrasts and comparisons between contextual meanings and basic meanings.
- b) Conceptual analysis shows that there are two distinct but comparable conceptual domains (or spaces) that may be linked by a cross-domain mapping.
- c) Behavioural analysis examines the realization of linguistic forms and conceptual structures of metaphor in cognitive processes and products in ongoing usage. (Steen et al., 2010: 9)

Therefore, acknowledging the differences between these interpretative issues discussed by Steen *et al.* (2010:9), I opt to use a linguistic analysis approach. I focus on showing that metaphorical meaning is indirect meaning which is potentially motivated by similarity or cross-domain mappings; as a result, in my research, I use MIP not MIPVU as the latter does not lend itself easily to a pedagogical context because of its focus on historical metaphors and metaphor in morphology, syntax etc. I also aim to explore how students make sense of the different types of metaphors they encounter in the English classroom environment, which involves learning contemporary English as a foreign language. This raises the question: what are the different types of metaphors that EFL learners might encounter when learning metaphors? I address this question in the next section.

2.2.1.7. *Types of metaphor*

The different types of metaphor are discussed in Charteris-Black's (2002) work, whose classification is adopted in this study. The classification model of different types of metaphors

proposed by Charteris-Black (2002) was developed from Deignan et al. (1997), who suggest that a comparative analysis of conceptual metaphors can lead to the identification of four possible language variations:

- 1- The same conceptual metaphor and equivalent linguistic expression.
- 2- The same conceptual metaphor, but a different linguistic expression.
- 3- Different conceptual metaphors.
- 4- Words and expressions with the same literal meanings, but different metaphorical meanings. (Cited in Charteris-Black, 2002: 111)

Charteris-Black (2002: 119) classifies figurative language into six types based on their complexity as comprehended by non-speakers of English. This research focuses on one type of figurative language (i.e., metaphors). He compares whether figurative units are conceptually and linguistically equivalent, similar or different between English and the learner's native language, and whether they are culture-specific (i.e., opaque) or universal (i.e., transparent). It is important to note that this study adopts the first type discussed in Deignan et al. (1997), and the third and sixth classifications proposed by Charteris-Black (2002); the reasons for my selection are discussed in **Chapter 3** (section 3.5.3). The current section describes the six classifications of metaphor proposed by Charteris-Black (2002). Examples from Charteris-Black's (2002) study will be used to explain the six figurative units. Furthermore, only the three types selected for this study will include Kuwaiti Arabic (KA) examples, as displayed in Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3.

Type 1 figurative units. Charteris-Black (2002:115) argues that 'sense may be taken as equivalent in Malay and English because there is a very close correspondence of both linguistic

and conceptual content'. For example, in Malay, the psycho-affective domain is located in hati 'the liver', whereas in English feelings are located in the heart. This accounts for the lexical difference involved in the substitution of 'heart' for 'liver'. Therefore, a literal translation of the Malay figurative expression carries a very similar sense to its English equivalent. Here, both KA and English have equivalent linguistic expressions for 'tempting idea', which is equivalent to the KA linguistic expression 'Fikrah MoGhriah' – in English 'tempting idea'. Both expressions have the equivalent conceptual basis IDEAS ARE FOOD (refer to Table 4 type 1, below, which is adapted and modified from Charteris-Black, 2002: 129- 132). In this case, Charteris-Black (2002:115) suggests that this type of metaphor is the least complex for learners since it does not contrast with their L1 knowledge.

Table 1: (Type 1) Equivalent conceptual basis, equivalent linguistic form

No.	Examples from Headway		Figurative (equivalent) meaning	Conceptual (equivalent) basis
	English	Kuwaiti Arabic (KA) + Literal Translation		
1	<i>Tempting idea</i>	Fikrah moghriah "فكرة مغرية"	Attractive idea	IDEAS ARE FOOD

Type 2 figurative units are those with an equivalent conceptual basis and similar linguistic form. In this type, both Malay and English have similar linguistic expressions for the English expression, 'big-mouthed', which is similar to the Malay expression 'mulut tempayan'. In English, this means 'mouth a big jar used for storing water' where the mouth is equivalent to mulut and they both place a negative evaluation on ways of speaking (Charteris-Black, 2002: 116). The linguistic forms are similar but convey a slight difference; the English phrase suggests 'boastfulness' while the

Malay phrase suggests ‘revealing more in one’s speaking than is appropriate’. According to Charteris-Black (2002), this type is likely to be more difficult than type 1, but not as difficult as type 3.

Type 3 figurative units are those with a similar linguistic form in English and Malay, but they have a completely different conceptual basis and, hence, a different sense. In this type, Malay has a similar linguistic form to the English expression ‘they got the wind up’, but a different conceptual basis. This expression suggests the conceptual metaphor FEAR IS WIND, which probably implies ‘the effect of fear on the body’s digestion’ or ‘association of wind and storm’. However, in Malay, the conceptual metaphor is ANGER IS WIND. Here, wind is a metaphor for ‘the loud words that are exchanged when one is angry or because wind is associated with storms, that are, in return, associated with God’s anger’ (Charteris-Black, 2002: 116). This is apparent in the Malay phrase ‘angina-angin’ wind wind/ ‘easily-angered’, which suggests a correlation between wind and negative emotions. In this type, both KA and English have an equivalent linguistic expression; for example, in English, ‘He is a night owl’ has an equivalent in KA ‘Inta Boomah’, which means ‘You are an owl’ (please refer to Table 5 type 3, below) and does not have the same conceptual basis; in English, OWL STANDS FOR ENERGETIC PERSON, thus, a person who stays up at night and is energetic at night, while the KA conceptual metaphor is OWL STANDS FOR BAD OMEN, implying that the person brings bad luck. In this case, Charteris-Black (2002:116) suggests that this type of metaphor is problematic: a) it encourages the negative transfer of L1 meaning when it is accessed while processing the target language; and b) due to the different connotations of phrases with equivalent linguistic forms and different conceptual bases, a translation of the target language metaphor is likely to cause misunderstanding.

Table 2: (TYPE 3) Equivalent linguistic form, different conceptual basis

No.	Linguistic Expression		Figurative meaning	Conceptual basis (different)
	English	KA + Literal translation		
1	He is a night owl	Inahoo boomat lail "هو بومة ليل"	English: He is energetic at night and stays up late. Arabic: He is bad/evil	English: OWL STANDS FOR ENERGETIC PERSON Arabic: OWL STANDS FOR BAD OMEN

Type 4 figurative units are those that have completely different linguistic forms, but a shared conceptual basis, originating from common encyclopaedic knowledge. For example, both English and Malay share the conceptual metaphor VALUE IS SUBSTANCE, but they have different linguistic expressions that might be understood due to the conceptual similarity. According to Charteris-Black (2002: 117), the English expression ‘windbag’ may be translated into Malay as tong kosong (‘empty bowels’), where both reflect the ‘shared conceptual knowledge that if the body is conceptualised as a container, then its contents may be of no value if they have no substance (i.e. because they are filled with wind)’. Therefore, type 4 can be understood by language learners when they are assisted through language instruction to encourage a positive transfer from the L1 conceptual metaphor.

Type 5 figurative units are those that have completely different linguistic forms and conceptual bases, ‘but that may be transparent because they are readily accessible on the basis of knowledge that is culturally neutral’ (Charteris-Black, 2002: 118). Charteris-Black (2002: 118) argues that, despite the cultural diversity between Malay and English, when a Malay learner encounters a figurative unit that implies: if you ‘turn your back on someone you are no longer

facing them’, the Malay learner infers that ‘intentionally avoiding facial contact indicates rejection’. This is due to the culturally neutral knowledge of the typical positions of body parts.

Type 6 figurative units take completely different linguistic forms and conceptual bases in both languages. Moreover, they are opaque ‘in so far as the conceptual basis reflects the encoding of a culture specific meaning’ (Charteris-Black, 2002: 118). According to Charteris-Black (2002: 118), the English example ‘wrung her hands’ is an opaque (culture- specific) English phrase that refers to an action. Malay learners might struggle to understand this because the expression has no equivalent in Malay language or culture, linguistically or conceptually. Conversely, there are also opaque Malay idioms that have no English equivalent, such as makan angin (eat wind) ‘to travel for fun’. Here, both Arabic and English have different linguistic expressions with different conceptual bases that are considered opaque or culture specific. For example, the English expression “...It’s a new advertising wrinkle!” has the conceptual basis: NEW TRAITS ARE INTERESTING (like a wrinkle in the face), thereby implying something unusual that needs looking at, which can be a positive thing. On the other hand, there are also opaque linguistic expressions in KA such as “Tajaeedah deayah jadeedah” “تجعيدة دعائية جديدة” = “A wrinkle of a new advertisement”, which does not make sense in Arabic. In this case, Charteris-Black (2002: 116) suggests that this type of metaphor is problematic and must be taught formally by teachers who select and present type six metaphors and teach them to their students, or just learnt ‘inductively as they arise in learning contexts’ (p.118) given to students based on their textbooks.

Table 3: (TYPE 6) Different conceptual basis, different linguistic form opaque or culture-specific

No.	Linguistic Expressions		Figurative meaning (English)	Conceptual Basis (different)
	English	KSA = Literal translation		
1	"...It's a new advertising wrinkle!"	Tajaeedah deayah jadeedah. تجعيدة دعائية جديدة	English: something unusual that needs looking at, which can be something positive. Arabic: It does not make sense in Arabic.	English: NEW TRAITS ARE INTERESTING

As discussed above, the classification model of different types of metaphors proposed in Charteris-Black (2002) can assist language teachers in acknowledging that not all metaphors are difficult, and to spot which are the most complex metaphors EFL learners might encounter when learning metaphors. Thus, it might aid in selecting the best teaching practices in an attempt to overcome some of these difficulties.

In summary, despite the fact that it has been criticized by researchers, CMT has changed the way many people think about metaphor, elevating it from a literary device to a method for organizing our thoughts. Furthermore, CMT can have an impact on language teaching by demonstrating how source domains are mapped onto target domains in a specific language, showing how various conceptual metaphors are linguistically expressed in a specific language, and highlighting how metaphor structures thought in a specific language. With the help of CMT, the current research aims to investigate how EFL learners make sense of various kinds of metaphors in their L2. This study extends previous research on teaching, as well as CMT, to the explicit instruction of metaphor in order to assist EFL learners in making sense of various metaphors in their L2. Teaching Metaphor will be discussed in Section 2. 3. below.

2.3 Teaching Metaphor

As metaphor is an essential part of everyday communication and poses significant linguistic and cultural challenges to EFL/ ESL students (Low: 2008), language educators and researchers have different views on whether to incorporate learning/ teaching metaphors in EFL/ ESL classrooms. When it comes to teaching metaphors, there are two debates in the field. First, there is the question of whether or not to teach metaphors, which is discussed in detail in Chapter 1 (see section 1.1). Second, there is the debate about whether to use L2 instruction or not to teach English metaphors to EFL/ ESL learners. This section will begin by introducing different views on using L2 instruction in EFL/ ESL classrooms. Next is the role of instruction in metaphor learning/ teaching. After that, it concludes by presenting the difficulties and significance of learning/ teaching metaphors. As such, this section will provide the foundation for the current study, which aims to expand on previous research on teaching metaphor to L2 learners.

2.3.1 L2 instruction

2.3.1.1. *EFL/ ESL learning: To instruct or not to instruct?*

According to Housen & Pierrard (2005), there is a basic distinction between uninstructed (unguided, informal, naturalistic) foreign language learning and instructed ESL/EFL learning. In uninstructed learning, EFL/ ESL is learnt through spontaneous communication in natural situations, whereas instructed learning takes place under guided teaching. Lightbown & Spada (2013) explain the differences between an uninstructed context and an instructed one. On the one hand, in an uninstructed context, natural learning contexts are not only viewed as contexts

in which learners are exposed to the language in social interactions, or at work, but also includes classroom contexts in which other learners are native speakers of the target language and where instruction is directed toward native speakers rather than learners of the language. On the other hand, the language taught in instructional settings is directed at a group of second or foreign language learners, and the teacher's focus is on the target language itself. Thus, uninstructed contexts allow learners to treat language as a means of communication, whereas learning in an instructed context requires students to treat language as an object to be studied (Ellis, 2011a, Ellis et al., 2002).

Many researchers (e.g., Allwright, 1976; Corder, 1967) have argued against interfering in language learning, claiming that the best way to learn a language is by experiencing it as a medium of communication rather than treating it as an object of study. They perceive second language learning as a result of learners' contact and interaction with the L2 environment in everyday life. However, EFL learners are not exposed to an L2 environment on a daily basis, thus, an alternative way of learning the target language is achieved by L2 instruction in the L2 classroom. This research focuses specifically on the EFL context, and thus only classroom-based instructed foreign language learning will be discussed in relation to metaphor learning/ teaching in this thesis. The next section will introduce the notion of instructed EFL/ ESL language learning and its categorization. Some researchers (Ellis, 1991, 1997, 2005; Long, 1988) believe that L2 instruction can make a difference in the way learners acquire a second language. Loewen (2010) states that instructed EFL/ ESL involves all aspects of learning any language, other than one's first language (L1).

Housen & Pierrard (2005:3) define instruction as any deliberate attempt to encourage language learning by manipulating the methods of learning and/or conditions under which these methods function. Thus, this broad definition of the term instruction allows for a variety of instructional approaches, techniques, methods and strategies. There are different activities and practices that may occur in language learning in the classroom.

Many researchers (e.g., Ellis, 2001; Housen & Pierrard, 2005; Norris & Oretga, 2000; Spada, 1997) have stated that instruction can be primarily divided into meaning-focused instruction and form-focused instruction. The distinction between meaning-focused instruction and form-focused instruction has been discussed by several researchers; for example, Widdowson (1998b) argues that form-focused instruction requires the language learner to address both meaning and form, whereas meaning-focused instruction requires the language learner to process forms in order to encode and decode messages. Another example is Ellis (2001a, 2001b), who states that the difference between meaning-focused instruction and form-focused instruction relies on how language is viewed, as a tool or as an object, as well as the role that the learner plays as a user or as a student. The following section will briefly introduce each type of instruction.

2.3.1.2. Meaning-focused instruction vs FFI Form-focused instruction

Ellis (1999) states that meaning-focused instruction is related to the learner's focal attention, which depends on the communication of relevant meanings and authentic messages. There are many examples of meaning-focused instruction; some are found in the natural approach to L2 teaching (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) and in communicative language methods (Nunan, 1991; Prahbu, 1987). Form-focused instruction is related to any instructional task that is designed to

draw the learner's attention to language form. Language form can refer to grammatical structures, lexical items, phonological features, sociolinguistic and pragmatic features of language (Housen & Pierrard, 2005; Spada, 1997). Several researchers recommend the use of form- focused instruction over the use of meaning-focused instruction, particularly with adult learners and EFL learners who are not exposed on a daily basis to the target culture outside the classroom environment. In addition to supporting the use of form- focused instruction to explain complex linguistic forms (Norris & Ortega, 2000), the notion of form- focused instruction in EFL/ ESL learning is discussed in the literature. Thus, the following section is dedicated to discussing the notion of instruction in relation to metaphor learning/ teaching.

2.3.1.3. The role of Instruction in metaphor learning/ teaching

Even though there is a variety of methods to teach metaphor to EFL/ ESL learners, some researchers (e.g. Littlemore & Low, 2006a; Low, 1988) focus on explicit instruction because it allows students to interact with the language to understand and interpret new metaphorical expressions. This section will begin with a basic overview of different methods of teaching metaphor in general, before moving on to examine research on teaching metaphor to EFL learners.

Many researchers believe in incorporating metaphor instruction into second language curriculum, e.g. Low (1988) who argues that since metaphor is central to the use of language it is important to include metaphor instruction in the second language curriculum. However, he suggests that rather than learning metaphorical expressions as they appear in texts (one by one) or through lists or phrases, creative and conventionalized metaphor could be taught in a more

controlled manner. For creative metaphors, Low (1988: 138) recommends motivating learners to build on underlying conceptual metaphors to produce metaphors that are both innovative and suitable in the second language. For conventional metaphor, he suggests multi-text tasks that entail learners using metaphor in different contexts (Low, 1988: 141).

In addition, Low (1988: 141) proposes analytic discussions where the student is encouraged to identify underlying conceptual metaphors, to think about the extent to which metaphors are used and if they could be extended, and the limitations of metaphorical expressions, as well as comparing the structure of metaphors in the target language to the student's L1. This view is also supported by Deignan, Gabrys and Solska (1997), who promote metaphor awareness-raising activities such as translation exercises, discussion and encouraging students to compare metaphorical expression in L2 to their L1 to help them understand metaphors and how to use them appropriately in their L2. How metaphors are processed by language learners and what strategies students use to assist them in understanding metaphors is discussed in the literature.

2.3.1.4. EFL learners and the use of analogical reasoning

Littlemore and Low (2006a: 52) state that metaphor processing by EFL/ ESL learners may be more conscious and less automatic than when native speakers of the target language process metaphors. Therefore, they believe that EFL/ ESL learners can improve their metaphor sense making skills by developing their ability to notice metaphorical language. This can be done by triggering their source domain knowledge in order to make different connections and recognize different possible interpretations of certain metaphors. In addition, using analytical reasoning is

a skill that can help learners determine which aspects of the source domain are being accessed to describe the target domain, and finally form mental images to help them interpret metaphorical language (Littlemore & Low, 2006a: 52– 8).

In addition, Littlemore & Low (2016a: 37) explain that learning metaphorical language is encouraged by input about basic word meaning and underlying conceptual metaphors, along with students' interaction in classroom activities, as well as consciousness-raising activities designed to focus learners' attention on metaphorical expressions in the target language (ibid.: 197). Thus, Littlemore & Low (2006a:25) suggest that teachers could use 'querying routines' to teach metaphors as this technique encourages students to ask direct questions about basic meanings and senses of words so they can learn to understand metaphors encountered in new texts. Furthermore, these querying routines can assist learners' retention by leading to thorough processing of metaphors as they should actively engage with the text, or activity, question it and make connections to other topics (ibid.). According to Littlemore and Low (2006a), in order for teachers to raise students' overall awareness of metaphors and then think figuratively in their second language, teachers should apply a guided extended query session. This can be done by helping students recognize the basic sense of the words they encounter, then asking about the shape, structure, components and function of these words, before finally using the context with broader details, associations and concepts to decide on the most suitable meaning of these metaphors. This section has provided background information on metaphor instruction in learning/ teaching metaphor, the next sections discuss the challenges EFL learners face when they encounter metaphors and the strategies they use to make sense of them.

2.3.2 Difficulties with and Significance of Learning/Teaching Metaphors

The previous background review of the status of metaphor in thought and language links directly to the teaching of metaphors in the language classroom. Cognitive and linguistic approaches to metaphor have provided better insights into how to analyse and use metaphors. Therefore, the following section discusses the problems facing EFL learners when learning metaphors and the significance of teaching metaphors to EFL learners to improve their communicative competence. In addition, it discusses some strategies used by EFL to make sense of metaphors.

2.3.2.1. *Difficulties in Learning/Teaching Metaphors*

The ease with which learners can learn, interpret and use metaphorical expressions of L2 is linked to how comparable or distinct conceptual and linguistic metaphors are in the first and second languages of a student (Trim, 2007). While conceptual metaphor relates to the fundamental concept, linguistic metaphors refer to the precise expressions and sentences used to understand a language's conceptual metaphors. Languages may share the conceptual and linguistic form of a metaphor when comparing two distinct words. They may share the same conceptual metaphor but communicate it differently linguistically, or they may not share a conceptual or linguistic metaphor (Trim, 2007: 29). For language learners, if the first and second language do not contain the same conceptual metaphor expressed in the same linguistic form, they must either learn only the new linguistic expression or both the linguistic expression and a new form of conceptualization, that can be challenging. Deignan, Gabrys and Solska (1997) actually found that advanced Polish learners struggled more with English metaphorical expressions in which either the conceptual metaphor did not exist, or, in Polish, it was used differently. Overall, it has

been suggested that more culturally distant languages are likely to contain more distinctions in conceptual metaphors, leading to more variation in linguistic types and suggesting that learners studying a more culturally distant L2 may experience more challenges with metaphorical language than learners studying a language that is more culturally comparable to their native one (Trim, 2007).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue that cultural and cross-linguistic factors affect the ability of learners of English to make sense of, use and learn metaphors. For example, EFL learners face difficulties in differentiating between the meaning of individual words and learning the conceptual meaning of these words (Kövecses,2008:232). In addition, different studies show that language learners find it difficult to make sense of metaphors, especially when metaphors do not have a direct equivalent or are semantically similar to the student's L1 (Boers & Demecheleer, 2001, Deignan et al. 1997). This happens because learners tend to depend on the conceptual base of their L1 to interpret L2 forms (Kecskes, 2000: 145). According to Hwang (2008:3), when EFL students in the classroom deal with authentic L2 materials that are culture-specific and not like their L1, they tend to fall back on their own L1 conceptual system to comprehend and interpret the message, which can result in a misunderstanding of the L2. Corts and Pollio (1999: 81) and Cameron (2003: vii) agree that learning metaphors helps with the educational activities used by the lecturer. They also agree that the understanding and evaluation of metaphors can obstruct the learner's ability to follow the content of the lesson presented by the teacher.

It is important to briefly introduce the term 'evaluation' and its relation to language. Hunston and Thompson (2000: 5) define 'evaluation' as how a speaker or writer expresses their feelings or attitude about a concept or idea they are discussing, as well as reflecting "the value

system of that person and their community” (*ibid.* : 5). In other words, people remain connected and affected by their L1 when communicating in, or understanding, a new language. In this study I use the term cultural associations for an evaluation task that explores how students evaluate English metaphors. These cultural associations are linked to personal values and societal values; for example, when students encountered the word ‘drink’ some students said they don’t drink in Islam. The way students make sense of the word ‘drink’ is associated with personal and societal values, and by using these values students start to make cultural associations. Thus, EFL learners are influenced by their L1 when they learn an L2. Danesi (1993: 492) states that even if language learners can develop a high level of communicative proficiency, if they continue using their L1 conceptual system as a base, rather than target-language word structures, their discourse will not be appropriate but remain marked. Kecskes (2000: 157– 8) indicates that it is essential for language learners to learn both the form of the language and conceptual structures related to it. Effective communication is achieved when students have metaphorical competence (Gutiérrez Pérez, 2016: 87). Low (2008: 220– 1) stresses that language learners should pay attention to the conceptual meanings of a metaphor and increase their understanding of its linguistic and social aspects. In addition, Gibbs (1997: 141) notes that most linguistic metaphors convert the underlying metaphorical construct, which is part of the human conceptual system. Therefore, when language learners grasp conceptual metaphors, this will develop and improve their “apprehension and assimilation of L2 linguistic metaphor” (Albreshtsen, Haastrup and Henriksen, 2004: 81). Learning and making sense of metaphors will help EFL learners produce metaphors. Thus, a student’s speech will become more effortless and “native-like” (Boers et al. , 2006). In

other words, when students can interpret metaphors and use them in an appropriate context, their competence in the target language increases.

In relation to the problems arising from conceptual and cultural variations between first and second languages as well as the general slower pace of processing, studies indicate that metaphorical language can pose important linguistic and cultural challenges for second language students (Charteris-Black, 2004; Kövecses, 2005; Littlemore, 2003; Low, 1988; Low & Littlemore, 2006; Trim, 2007). When students are faced with challenges in making sense of metaphors, language learners resort to different strategies to make sense of metaphors. The following section will shed light on some strategies used by EFL/ ESL learners when processing metaphors.

2.3.2.2. EFL/ESL learner Strategies in Metaphor learning

Littlemore (2004a) relates the strategies used by learners to make sense of metaphors to some current theories of metaphor interpretation such as the graded salience hypothesis, interaction theory, blending theory, the career of metaphor theory and the class-inclusion model. Littlemore (2004a: 68) claims that “One strategy may reflect more than one theory of interpretation, and one theory of interpretation may be manifested in more than one strategy.” Littlemore’s (2004a: 68– 9) findings suggest that the type of strategy used by learners varies according to the richness of the context in which the metaphor expression is presented:

- 1) If there are a few contextual clues apparent in the example, which includes a metaphor, students use the graded salience hypothesis. According to Giora (1997), the graded salience hypothesis refers to the process in which, in the original phases of metaphor analysis, extremely significant meanings of both the source and target

domains are automatically processed. Thus, it is when students access the most salient features of the source domain first, and then attempt to apply them to the context.

- 2) If the contextual cues are fairly rich, then the approach taken by learners is likely to be the class inclusion model. According to Glucksberg et al. (2001), in the model of class inclusion a metaphor's two domains are placed in a single category with the characteristics they share. The listener then activates his or her target domain knowledge and fits the notion of the source domain into this structure of understanding.
- 3) If there are no obvious contextual clues to help students understand the metaphor – they simply have to infer a target domain themselves, by providing their own contextual clues as to the possible nature of the target domain, which is evidence of blending theory.
- 4) The example 'toss up' was interpreted because 'decision-making' provides support for the career of metaphor theory. Gentner & Bowdle (2001) suggest that in the career of metaphor theory, metaphorical mapping can be achieved through either procedures of comparison or categorization and that there is a change from comparison to categorization as metaphors become more conventionalized. Therefore, once the student learns the meaning, they do not need to engage in metaphorical thinking in order to retrieve it.
- 5) Gesture plays a major role in interpreting metaphors; indeed, in Littlemore's (2004: 69) study, one student's gesture triggered another student's understanding.

Littlemore (2004a) links the approaches taken by students to metaphor comprehension to five different theories and clarifies and explains each process. She adapted Cameron's (2003) 'Goal Directed Think-aloud Technique' in a small-scale case study of four intermediate Japanese learners of English attending a 12-hour course of spoken English – all sessions were video-taped and visual and verbal indicators of learners' metaphor sense-making was taken into account. The students verbalised their mental processes as they tried to figure out the meaning of the metaphor as a group. Four of the metaphors were deliberately chosen, and one was spontaneous. Littlemore's technique in analysing each strategy by linking it to other theories in the field of metaphor comprehension provides an opportunity to categorise the variant responses found in the students' answers. Littlemore's (2004) study displays differences in strategies and the wide range of theories in the field, but it does not suggest a framework that is applicable to various strategies that can be adapted in the analysis of this study.

There are several strategies used by EFL learners when they encounter different types of metaphors. According to Charteris-Black (2002) and Littlemore (2006b), when students encounter universal metaphors that have shared concepts in both the learner's L1 and the target language, it is easy for the learner to arrive at the conceptual meaning of the metaphor. However, when students encounter more complex metaphors, such as culture-based metaphors, they use different types of strategies. In the following section, I will discuss each strategy in the following order: giving the literal meaning, L1 transfer, contextual meaning or guessing.

A. Literal meaning

First of all, metaphor can be a challenge for students purely from a linguistic stance. To begin with, learners must decide whether a word or a sentence is used literally or metaphorically, which

in their second language is not always simple to do (Low, 1998: 136). Littlemore & Low (2006a: 5) discuss that the full meaning of a metaphorical expression may not be transparent from the context, making processing even more difficult for learners. Littlemore (2001) explains that even when students understand the individual words, they still face difficulties in making sense of the overall meaning of the metaphorical expression. Furthermore, before studying the literal meaning, learners may face the figurative meaning of a phrase, and learners who are unfamiliar with the more fundamental meanings of words in a metaphorical phrase will definitely struggle to interpret their metaphorical meaning (Low, 1988: 136). Yet, providing the literal meaning of a metaphor is a common strategy used by EFL learners. According to Charteris-Black (2000), when students are faced with a metaphorical expression that is Type 1 (equivalent conceptually and linguistically in both L1 and L2), the strategy they tend to use is to give a literal translation of the words.

B. L1 transfer

In comparison to ‘native speakers’ of English who are exposed to metaphors as part of everyday language use, EFL learners tend not to have a repertoire of familiar, prefabricated figurative expressions due to the nature of studying English as a school subject. This absence of language exposure and the linguistic knowledge that accompanies it adds to the problems EFL learners have when interpreting metaphorical language in their L2 (Littlemore & Low 2006a: 6). According to Charteris-Black (2002), the aspect of cultural differences between L1 and the target language is challenging for L2 learners. When students are faced with metaphors that are not familiar or do not exist in their L1, at the most basic level, the strategy students use is to make an incorrect transfer of metaphorical expressions from their first language to their second language (Low,

1988: 136). Furthermore, since metaphor is concerned with expressing both our views and what we feel about them, metaphorical language often reveals an underlying cultural value and evaluation system, adding an additional layer of complexity for L2 students (Charteris-Black, 2004: 11). Indeed, different studies (Littlemore, 2001c; Littlemore, 2003) demonstrate that learners from different cultural backgrounds may misinterpret metaphorical phrases in their second language, particularly if the metaphors represent cultural values different from their own (for more details see 2. 4.).

C. Contextual meaning and guessing meaning

According to Littlemore (2006a, 2006b) and Low et al. (2008), learners may use a number of strategies when facing difficult metaphors, including referring to an equivalent metaphor in their L1, using a word's literal meaning to understand the figurative meaning and guessing the meaning from the context; however, all of these methods may still lead to misunderstanding and misinterpretation. The strategy of using the contextual meaning to reach the meaning of metaphor is also found in Charteris-Black's (2002) study on Malay students. The strategies found in Littlemore's (2004a) study, and some of the 6 figurative units of Charteris-Black (2002), set a base for a systematic way in which to analyse different strategies used by learners to make sense of metaphors.

In summary, given the omnipresence of metaphor in language and its significant role in cognition and communication (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), the significant literal, cultural and contextual challenges it presents for language learners, and its prevalence in academic lectures, teaching students how to make sense and use metaphorical language must be a priority in the L2 classroom. This section has provided background information on the difficulties with and

significance of learning/ teaching metaphor, the next sections will address the skills EFL learners need when learning metaphors.

2.3.3 Metaphor and EFL learners

As the present study explores how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of different types of English metaphors, this section reviews the literature on two key notions: namely, metaphor awareness and metaphoric competence. These are crucial skills that EFL learners need to be equipped with.

2.3.3.1. *Metaphor Awareness*

Metaphor awareness or enhanced metaphor awareness and its role in language is important for successful understanding and use of L2 metaphor. Increased metaphor awareness, according to Boers (2004), means students can:

- i) acknowledge metaphor as an integral part of the daily use of language;
- ii) identify the source and conceptual metaphors that motivate a number of figurative expressions;
- iii) recognize the "non-arbitrary nature" of numerous figurative phrases;
- iv) acknowledge cross-cultural variation in conceptual metaphors;
- v) identify cross-linguistic differences in linguistic metaphors. (ibid. : 211)

In other words, learners must first be conscious at a more general level that metaphor is a prevalent, non-arbitrary element of everyday language. Second, learners should be familiar with common source domains as well as cross-cultural variations in their L2's conceptual and linguistic metaphors. Boers (2000: 566– 8) proposes a range of awareness-raising activities for learners that include:

- a) asking learners about an abstract notion in their own language to increase their awareness of the pervasiveness of metaphor;
- b) explaining metaphoric themes with regard to their experiential basis;
- c) requesting learners to describe individual idiomatic expressions that are semantically transparent;
- d) highlighting historical-cultural backgrounds that lead to cross-cultural variations in the learners' L1 and L2.

Furthermore, Kalyuga & Kalyuga (2008: 252) argue that greater metaphor awareness can also enhance learners' autonomy and problem-solving abilities by encouraging learners to work out the meanings of metaphorical expressions without the teacher's assistance. In addition, not only is metaphor awareness important to identifying and understanding new metaphorical expressions in the target language, it is also a significant element in developing learners' metaphorical competence.

2.3.3.2. Metaphorical competence

Nacey (2010: 32) claims that metaphorical competence is a learner's ability to interpret and use metaphors correctly. The term metaphoric competence is mostly used in L2 teaching and learning, "as production and interpretation of metaphorical expressions is often considered more challenging in an L2 than an L1" (Nacey 2010: 32). Low (1988) believes that metaphorical competence is essential for learners to develop in order to be considered competent in their second language. He also recommends different skills that can assist learners in enhancing their metaphorical competence, as well their ability to establish plausible meaning, their awareness of 'socially sensitive' metaphors, their consciousness of 'multiple layering' in metaphors and interactive skills (Low: 1988).

In addition, Littlemore & Low (2006a: 55– 6) suggest that a person’s “associative fluency” or their ability to create a broad variety of links is definitely related to their "metaphor fluency" and general metaphorical competence. This ability to think of different ideas for a certain situation can assist learners to think about several source domains and various interpretations for a specific metaphorical expression before they decide on the right one. That is, learners who search for meaning more broadly when faced with a metaphorical expression are more likely to think of less central metaphorical meanings of a word or sentence, which is often the key to successful metaphor understanding (ibid.). Furthermore, high levels of analogical reasoning and mental imagery seem to aid metaphorical competence in a second language.

As stated by Littlemore and Low (2006a:56), “native speakers can rely heavily on intuition, cultural knowledge, and the activation of relevant networks of features”. When faced with metaphorical expressions, language learners face more difficulties and may need to draw as many analogies as possible between the source and target domains to arrive at the correct meaning. Consequently, for language learners to become fully competent communicators, they must develop both their L2 metaphor awareness, or knowledge of metaphor and its role in language, and L2 metaphoric competence, or ability to comprehend, interpret and appropriately use metaphorical expressions in the L2. The next section will discuss metaphor comprehension and the learning/ teaching of metaphors.

2.3.3.3. *Metaphor Comprehension*

Conceptual metaphor comprehension and the learning/ teaching of metaphors have begun to attract considerable attention in recent years (see section 2.2). Many scholars (e.g., Cameron &

Deignan, 2006; Gibbs & Matlock, 2008; Kövecses & Szabco, 1996) have investigated the comprehension of metaphors in different languages based on Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT). Metaphors are common and significant in communication (Littlemore, 2003b: 331; Littlemore and Low, 2006: 268). Therefore, the importance of learning/ teaching conceptual metaphors by learners of EFL cannot be underestimated. According to Kövecses (2005), EFL learners face difficulties in differentiating between the meaning of individual words and learning the conceptual meanings of these words. Lowery (2013) and Littlemore (2013) also argue that awareness and comprehension of English metaphors is a challenge that L2/EFL learners face around the world.

Hwang (2008:3) states that when EFL students in classrooms are presented with authentic, culture specific L2 materials, they tend to revisit the conceptual system they had as L1 learners to comprehend and interpret the message. This fosters a misunderstanding of the L2. This awareness problem increases in significance when the metaphorical expressions are culture-based and do not have direct equivalents in the EFL learner's first or native language (L1). Littlemore (2003a) compared the value system of language learners' home country (Bangladesh) with that of the target language (e.g. Great Britain) and found that the learners' own value system affects their understanding of the L2 and they interpret metaphors "in ways that supported, rather than contradicted their own value systems and schemata" (ibid.:282). Aware of this possibility, this research aims to focus on how EFL learners make sense of different English metaphors, starting with those most universal to cultural-based metaphors. Moreover, the research observes the role played by learners' L1 value system in understanding these metaphors, as suggested by Littlemore (2003a).

Studies conducted on metaphor teaching/ learning for EFL learners have hinted at this problem and proposed several appropriate teaching methods. Cheng (2000: 1) suggests teaching metaphors as formulaic expressions through memorisation, where students match Chinese expressions to English equivalents, accompanied by Chinese example sentences alongside their English translation (see 2.3.5.1). This method of translating and memorising is influential and attainable. Nevertheless, students will struggle to comprehend and apply these metaphors if they cannot memorise the phrases or are faced with new unfamiliar expressions. Furthermore, this study fails to demonstrate the appropriate use of these expressions to EFL learners, i.e., their positive and negative connotations. Boers (2000) argues for the effectiveness of teaching vocabulary using imagery processing (see section 2.3.5.2). His study focuses on emotional metaphors, which are mostly universal metaphors, and the use of metaphoric themes. However, the research is limited by Boer's recognition that not all metaphors can be categorised by theme; consequently, it does not address complex metaphors.

Boer's (2000) image processing is adopted by Chen and Lai (2013), albeit with some alterations. They combined Boer's (2000) method with the metaphor mapping approach developed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) to overcome the aforementioned limitation. However, their approach does not focus on culture-based English metaphors; rather, most of their examples can be classed as universal metaphors. Moreover, they do not teach EFL learners the implications of these expressions, i.e., whether they are positive or negative, or how to use them appropriately. Toyokura (2016) argues that the metaphorical competence of EFL learners can be enhanced through translation combined with conceptual thinking (see 2.3.5.2). This method is fruitful and will be used in part for this study; nevertheless, it does not focus on how EFL learners

make sense of these English cultural metaphors, nor their positive or negative perceptions of these expressions.

Studies pertaining to metaphor teaching have yet to explore EFL learners' awareness and comprehension of culture-based metaphors that do not have a direct equivalent in their L1 language and culture. That is to say, exploring how EFL students perceive these conceptual metaphors and whether they associate them with positive or negative connotations remains an underresearched area. Littlemore (2003a: 283) explains that there are two main elements that affect learners' comprehension of metaphors: a) their conceptual system, and b) their value system which is based on their culture. My aim is to arrive at a better understanding of how EFL learners make sense of different types of English metaphor, especially English culture-based metaphors, in addition to exploring the effect of the learners' value system in making sense of these metaphors.

This study contributes to this area of research by conducting a quasi-experiment on EFL learners to explore how they make sense of different English metaphors, especially culture-based metaphors and the cultural associations of these metaphors in terms having positive or negative connotations. Although several studies on learning/ teaching metaphors have been conducted, the challenges facing EFL learners when learning English metaphors, especially culture-based metaphors, remain an obstacle. Additional studies to understand how EFL learners associate English metaphors with evaluative orientations, whether negative or positive, are needed. Therefore, this study seeks to suggest a way to help overcome some of the difficulties EFL learners face in learning metaphors. This study will adopt a combination of three methods to create a teaching intervention (see section 3.6.3). Two of the methods have been previously

used in this field: Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) metaphorical mapping (see Chapter 3) and Littlemore's (2011) analogical reasoning (see section 2.3.1.4). The third method is newly proposed in this study, following Weirzbecka's (1992, 2003) primitive semantics method. It is important to briefly introduce Weirzbecka's approach before moving on to discuss the following section on sense-making of metaphors. Wierzbicka (1991) argues that "the use of Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) can free people from ethnocentrism and enables us to capture, in every case, the cultural insider's point of view, while at the same time making that point of view intelligible to the outsider" (ibid.: xix). Therefore, she developed a theory that semantic analysis should be based on universal human concepts, which are simple concepts present in all languages. Wierzbicka created a set of universal semantic primitives, or primes, that are discussed in detail in Chapter 3. Weirzbecka's method combined with conceptual mapping and analogical reasoning (see section 2.3.1.4) is used in the teaching intervention to aid students in their interpretation and awareness of different English metaphors. It is hoped that this will have an impact on teaching English metaphors to EFL learners. In doing so, this study makes significant contributions to knowledge, conceptually, methodologically and pedagogically.

In summary, metaphor awareness, metaphorical competence and metaphor comprehension require many different kinds of skills that L2 learners need to learn in order to understand different types of metaphors. For the present research, which focuses on exploring how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of metaphors, it is important to discuss how I arrived at the term sense-making in this research.

2.3.4 Sense-making of Metaphors: Notes on Terminology

2.3.4.1. *Different terminology in the literature*

In relation to metaphor comprehension and understanding, different terms have been used to refer to the ways in which we make sense of metaphors. Some have called it comprehension (Littlemore, 2004; Keil, 1986; Stamenkovic et al., 2019; Goswami, 2004), others interpretation (Gibbs, 2001; Littlemore, 2004; Shutova, 2010) or understanding (Cameron, 2003; Tendal & Gibbs, 2008; Glucksberg et al., 2001), and some have named it sense-making (Nicholson & Anderson, 2005; Hill & Levenhagen, 1995). Each use of terminology is related to a specific field of research or approach. These differences in use prompted me to explore these terms and their frequencies in the references on which I primarily depended in order to discover whether they are interchangeable or must be used with more precision depending on the context.

This section briefly outlines the various terminology used by different researchers when discussing metaphor theory and explains which terms I have selected for this thesis and the reasons for my selection. First, Charteris-Black (2002) uses the term comprehension eight times, interpreting/ interpretation eight times and understanding nine times. It can be argued that these terms are used equally in his paper, thereby demonstrating the importance of each term to his work. Charteris-Black does not provide clear definitions of these terms: ‘comprehension’, ‘interpretation’ and ‘understanding’ metaphors. His focus in using these terms generally aims to compare figurative phraseology in English and Malay with an interest in learner’s production and comprehension of different types of metaphors, without stating what is meant by metaphor comprehension. In contrast, Littlemore (2004a) uses the term interpret(ation) 42 times,

understanding 13 times and comprehension 12 times. This demonstrates that the term interpretation is used more frequently to describe the process of understanding/ interpreting metaphors in her work. There are many terms used in metaphor theory, e.g. comprehension, interpretation and understanding, by scholars including Littlemore (2004a) and Charteris-Black (2002). Sometimes they seem to be similar and interchangeable while, at other times, they appear to be used diversely with different meanings. The following will explain each term in relation to metaphor theory, starting with comprehension, followed by interpretation and the relation between metaphor understanding, interpretation and sense-making.

2.3.4.2. *Metaphor comprehension*

The term comprehension is used in the literature by researchers in different ways. As mentioned previously, some researchers (Littlemore, 2004, 2006; Keil, 1986) explain that metaphor comprehension requires the learner to make a connection between the source domain and the target domain in a given context. From Littlemore's (2004) perspective, 'comprehension' involves a full understanding of the differences between the source and target domains. For example, to comprehend the metaphor "science is witchcraft" (ibid.: 59), one must understand the relation between the source and target domains and their different connotations. Here the word science represents the target domain, which can be perceived as something good and that stands for rational thinking, whereas the word witchcraft represents the source domain, which can be perceived as bad and standing for something magical. Thus, understanding the differences between domains in metaphor comprehension requires an ability to not only perceive correlations between domains, but also understand their differences.

Other researchers with similar views (Stamenkovic et al. , 2019; Goswami, 2004) argue that the term metaphor comprehension requires analogical reasoning, which is an important aspect of human cognition, to relate the target domain to the source domain. The idea that metaphor comprehension is based on analogy originated with Aristotle and was advanced in modern times by researchers such as Black (1962), who proposed an interaction theory based, at least in part, on analogy. Furthermore, in psychology, the analogy hypothesis was developed by Tourangeau & Sternberg (1981, 1982) and Gentner & Clement (1988). However, other researchers (e.g. Haloyoak & Stamenjovic, 2018: 646– 7) state that analogical reasoning is not the only way to view metaphor comprehension, rather it is one of the three main and different views of metaphor comprehension. These three views are as follows: first, the analogy position, as explained above. Second is the categorisation position, which presumes that metaphor comprehension relies on only comparing two individual concepts. Third, conceptual mapping positioning views metaphor comprehension as a type of constrained analogical reasoning in which relevant mappings are retrieved, rather than computed using complex reasoning.

In understanding the different usages of the term ‘comprehension’, I find using the term comprehension based on the conceptual mapping view of metaphor comprehension discussed in Halyoack & Stamenjovic (2018) is the closest to my current work. However, while I agree with the conceptual mapping view of metaphor comprehension, I cannot solely use the term comprehension in my work for the following reason; in doing so, I restrict my work to the way learners use analogical reasoning to understand metaphors through the retrieval of relevant mappings of domains. However, the current research tries to investigate how EFL learners make sense of different types of metaphors, not just through analogical reasoning. Hence, the term

comprehension does not capture all the elements involved in understanding metaphor. Another relevant term is metaphor interpretation, which I discuss next.

2.3.4.3. *Metaphor interpretation*

The term interpretation has been used by many metaphor researchers. On the one hand, Littlemore (2004a) argues that metaphor interpretation falls between two general views; one is more traditional and based on the learner's ability when interpreting and analysing a metaphor to reject a literal meaning. Another contemporary view, also supported by Gibbs (2001: 318), argues that the learner does not need to access the full literal meaning of a metaphor but can make use of contextual clues available to understand it. Conversely, Shutova (2010) defines metaphor interpretation as the task of finding a literal paraphrase for a word used metaphorically and introducing the concept of symmetric reverse paraphrasing as a criterion for metaphor identification. These different explanations of the term interpretation are limited to the role of literal meaning (either rejecting or accepting it) to understand and interpret different metaphors. I agree with the term interpretation based on the contemporary view of metaphor interpretation explained in Littlemore (2004a), whereby, the learner does not need to access the complete literal meaning of metaphors but can resort to available contextual clues to understand them. However, it seems that it is one possible way of explaining how EFL learners make sense of metaphors. This suggests that like the word 'comprehension', 'interpretation' also captures some but not all of the elements involved in the process of making sense of metaphors.

A. Relation between metaphor interpretation & understanding

The idea of adjoining the term interpretation to the term understanding exists in the literature. Cameron (2003: 146) has linked metaphor understanding to metaphor interpretation. She claims that understanding a metaphor requires establishing a coherent interpretation of the source domain in relation to the target domain by making sense of the metaphor in its discourse context. Cameron (2003) focuses on the term understanding as a basic element in establishing metaphor interpretation and explains these terms. Nonetheless, Cameron's (2003) paper lacks a definition of making sense of metaphors or sense-making and what this term entails, which will be explored later (see section 2.3.4.5). Therefore, I opt not to use the term metaphor understanding linked to interpretation, as used in Cameron (2003), without first exploring how the term understanding is used in the literature in isolation, alongside the meaning of the term sense-making, and whether any of these terms can be extended to another meaning, or if any of these terms are flexible enough to be tailored to fit all of these terms.

2.3.4.4. Understanding metaphors

Other researchers have discussed the term understanding metaphors differently from the explanation given by Cameron (2003), above. For example, Tendal & Gibbs (2008) claim that the theory of metaphor use, and understanding is concerned with unconscious mental processes used by people when they produce and understand metaphors. Another view of metaphor understanding is discussed by Glucksberg et al. (2001: 8), who claim that metaphor understanding requires more cognitive work than literal understanding, through the use of contextual information. These different explanations of the term 'understanding metaphors'

make it difficult to decide which definition to use. Therefore, I turned to the term sense-making as it promises a more expansive understanding, as I discuss in the following section.

2.3.4.5. *What is Sense-making?*

Sense-making is a term used differently by researchers. It appeared in organisational theory and was then used in many other fields, such as metaphor theory. The father of sense making, Karl Weick (1995: 4), suggests that the term sense-making is simply “the making of senses”. Waterman (1990: 41) claims that the term sense-making involves a process of “structuring the unknown”. Other researchers have extended previous definitions, e.g. Colville (2008: 197) who suggests that sense-making involves how people establish common sense that permits them to proceed. Thus, he believes that sense-making can be understood as the process through which people generate credible shared understandings of situations in which they find themselves, and the ways they should exist and progress therein. The following section will discuss some of the characteristics of the term sense-making and why they are referred to in the current research.

A. *Characteristics of Sense-making*

Sense-making has many characteristics. For example, Weick et al. (2005: 409) argue that sense-making can be regarded as an activity that enables people to transform the complexity of the world into a situation that can be comprehended. Another important characteristic of sense-making is its duality. This has been discussed by Paivio & Walsh (1996), who argue in their work that a dual sense-making approach combines the views of both researcher and participants. Thus, using the term sense-making will underpin my theoretical work and allow me to explain duality by examining how participants make sense of metaphors and how I, as researcher, make sense

of participants' understandings. In addition, a third layer is evident as it is linked to my own understanding as a researcher of metaphors, one that is heavily dependent on conceptual mapping.

Another reason for selecting the term sense-making is its characteristics as mentioned by Starbuck & Milliken (1988: 51). They claim that sense-making enables people “to comprehend, understand, explain, attribute, extrapolate, and predict”. They outline in detail six characteristics of sense-making. It is a process of: (i) comprehending, (ii) understanding, (iii) explaining, (iv) attributing, (v) extrapolating and extending; (vi) predicting and speculating about something. Several of these elements are important in this study, e.g. understanding, comprehending, explaining and predicting. These elements, associated with the term sense-making, allow me to explain how EFL learners make sense of metaphors by using the term sense-making as an umbrella to cover these different processes of metaphor comprehension, which is the conceptual view of metaphor comprehension discussed in section (2.3.4.2). This will allow me to extend and link the terms understanding and interpretation.

Nevertheless, I will base what I mean by the term sense-making in my study on Starbuck and Milliken's (1998) definition of it. In this dissertation, sense-making refers to the ability to understand metaphor and this understanding is likely to be affected by the intuition of both student and researcher, bearing in mind the duality logic mentioned earlier. Intuition here is quite complex because it contains elements of L1 and L2; thus, students will tend to resort to their L1. However, they also rely on their existing knowledge about their L2 and, therefore, the intuition of my students is rather complex. It is not intuition based only on one language but on what they already know about both languages and cultures. At this stage, it is important to define

intuition and briefly discuss its role in the research to explain my selection of the term sense-making. This is discussed in the following section.

2.3.4.6. *Intuition*

The term intuition derives from the Latin *intueri*, which means to look upon or to see within. According to Janesick (2001: 532), intuition is a method used to learn about the world through insight and using one's imagination. Hassin et al. (2005) argue that intuition is rooted in the unconscious human brain and the experience of knowing without knowing from where that knowledge stemmed. Furthermore, Bartlett et al. (2013:4) state that Intuition is knowledge stored in long-term memory that has been primarily acquired through associative learning. Thus, all these definitions have one element in common, they all rely on unconscious stored knowledge that assists humans to make judgements about the world based on previous knowledge or imagination.

The idea of intuition as a method of judgment has been discussed in the literature by Dane & Pratt (2007), who define intuition as “affectively charged judgments that arise through rapid, non-conscious, and holistic associations”. In addition, Devitt (2012:555) claims that intuitive judgements are commonly used in theories of language as a mean of providing evidence for some theories of language. Kripe (1980) and Neale (2004) explicitly state the importance of intuition in language interpretation. Thus, intuition is a method of judgement and making sense of the unknown by using one's own previous knowledge about the world and one's imagination of how things might be. This characteristic of intuition is an important factor in my work on

metaphor. The importance of the relation between metaphor and intuition in the literature is discussed in the following section.

A. Metaphor and intuition

Many scholars recognise the link between metaphors and people's own intuition. For example, Crossan et al. (1999:527) claim that people use metaphors to assist them in explaining their intuition to themselves and sharing it with the people around them. Another view of the relationship between metaphor and intuition is discussed by Gibbs (2006: 438), who examines the idea of a learner's intuition in understanding metaphors. He states that a learner's intuition about his or her embodied knowledge of source domains is an essential element in understanding metaphors and enables the learner to predict what gets mapped onto different target domains in metaphorical concepts. This study involves the learner's intuition in making sense of metaphors, as well as the researcher's intuition in making sense of target metaphors. The researcher's intuition in understanding metaphors is also an important factor discussed in the literature. The following section briefly discusses the role of the researcher's intuition.

B. Role of the researcher's intuition

A researcher's intuition in understanding metaphors and analysing data is discussed by Semino (2008: 14), who states that "I rely on my intuition, too, in analysing data." Semino states that she used her intuition as a researcher to identify if the word 'battle' could be used metaphorically. Despite using her intuition to analyse data, she also explains the disadvantages of using intuition, such as: a) it is neither an explicit nor a systematic method on which to rely; b) intuition tends to differ from one individual to another, let alone from one researcher to another.

The debate on the advantages and disadvantages of the use of intuition in theories of language have long been discussed in the literature. On the one hand, some researchers support it, e.g. Devitt (2012:555) who believes that intuition is commonly used in language theories. Others oppose the use of intuition in learning styles; for example, Williamson (2008:215) calls intuition a “methodological scandal”. He argues that there is no agreed account of how intuition works, and no accepted explanation of the correlation between, for example, having intuition about something and that intuition making it true. Moreover, Brock (2015:142) argues that “the existence of an intuitive learning style in scientific thinking seems also to be thinly supported by evidence”.

With respect to the disadvantages of using intuition, one must not neglect the important role researchers’ intuition plays in assisting them to understand metaphors. However, when researchers use their intuition in language learning, they should exercise caution because thinking about language is notoriously hard. Still, researchers can often be confident about judgements they make about language based on their intuition. As Planck (1950: 109) states, new ideas are generated by creative imagination. Thus, using your intuition may generate new ideas that may become beneficial in the field. Therefore, I believe that intuition is an important factor in making sense of metaphors. The relation between the term sense-making and intuition is covered in the literature. The link between the term sense-making and intuition is discussed further, below.

C. Relation between sense-making & intuition

I believe intuition is an important aspect in making sense of, understanding and interpreting metaphors. Wisniewski (1998) points out that “researchers who study behaviour and thought

within an experimental framework develop better intuition about those phenomena” (ibid. : 45). Thus, in this quasi-experiment, as part of the sense-making process, intuition is expected to be part of the process. For example, when we are talking about the duality of sense-making we are also talking about the duality of intuition (researcher’s intuition/ student’s intuition), since sense-making and intuition in this study share very similar characteristics. The most important one of these characteristics is the duality approach that combines the researcher’s and participants’ associative views, which is a complex element in my dissertation. I consider my students’ view of metaphors, especially how they make sense of target metaphors based on their intuition in relation to my sense-making as a researcher of these metaphors, bearing in mind that my understanding of these metaphors is also based on my intuition to make sense of their answers. The following section briefly discusses the duality approach shared between the terms sense-making and intuition.

D. Duality approach to sense-making and intuition

As discussed above, the duality approach is an important shared characteristic between sense-making and intuition. What is meant by the duality approach is the dual views of sense-making and intuition addressed in this study, which are the learner’s view and the researcher’s view. My students’ sense-making of the metaphors they encounter in the project is based on their intuition of both Arabic and English, in other words, their knowledge of both languages stored in their long-term memory. Thus, participants’ sense-making of target metaphors is based on their intuition and previous knowledge. On the one hand, my views of sense-making as a researcher of the target metaphors used in my study are based on the conceptual meanings of metaphors

employed. In other words, my understanding of the metaphors used in my data is geared more towards linguistic proficiency. For example, do the students get the conceptual meaning? Or not?

How I make sense of metaphors and why I want my students to reach a conceptual meaning of target metaphors is influenced by Charteris-Black (2002). His target was language proficiency. When analysing his data, he wanted to explore whether or not his students could arrive at the conceptual meaning of each metaphor. As a language teacher, I am inspired by his work and the work of other researchers, so I adopted part of Charteris-Black's (2002) method. I have developed a teaching intervention in an attempt to assist EFL learners in understanding different metaphors. In my teaching intervention, I combine three methods that exist in the literature; conceptual metaphor mapping, semantic primitives and analogical reasoning (see Chapter 3), in an attempt to explore how EFL learners make sense of metaphors.

This attempt seeks to enable EFL learners to communicate well in their L2 and understand different types of English metaphors correctly (linguistic proficiency). In doing so, I had to decide on a terminology that can reflect my work and explain how EFL learners make sense and understand metaphors. Through a search of the literature, and the difficulties I encountered to select terminology that best fits my work, I reached the conclusion that the characteristics of the term sense-making are a way to understand, comprehend and predict metaphors. In addition, the similarities between sense-making and intuition, specifically the duality approach, will assist and inform my data analysis. Therefore, I believe that the term sense-making is most suitable for this case study. After establishing what I mean by metaphor sense-making I can now proceed to discuss the importance of teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom, and previous methods used

in the field. The following section discusses some previous methods used to teach metaphors to EFL learners.

2.3.5 Teaching metaphor in the EFL classroom

Several methods have been used to teach metaphors to EFL learners. Some have specifically focused on idioms or on a subpart of metaphorical expression. In the following section, five methods are discussed in detail. These five methods can be grouped into three main groups: 1) memorisation method, 2) conceptual mapping method and 3) translation method.

2.3.5.1. *Method 1. Teaching Metaphors Through Memorisation*

Cheng (2000:1) uses formulaic expressions through memorisation as a method for teaching metaphors. It entails matching expressions in Chinese to those in English and accompanying these with Chinese example sentences and their English translations, as in example (3) below:

(3)

“ 八卦新聞 Yellow journalism

例: 八卦新聞沒什麼教育性和知識性, 可是許多人愛看。

Yellow journalism is hardly educational and informative, but a lot of people love it.” (as cited by Chen & Lai 2013: 14)

This method of translating and memorising expressions is influential and attainable. However, it does not show the EFL learner appropriate uses of these expressions, i.e. their positive and negative connotations. If they fail to memorise these phrases or are faced with new concepts or expressions, students will not have the tools to make sense of the meanings and uses of these metaphors. This study suggests that this is a difficulty that EFL students might face, and it has not

been addressed in the literature to date. The current research focuses on this gap in the literature and aims to fill it by using the new method proposed in this study.

2.3.5.2. *Method 2. Conceptual Mapping Method*

A. Teaching Metaphors Through Metaphor Mapping

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphor mapping is a process used to present the relationship between the source and target concepts in a metaphor. Kövecses (2001) adds that there are two types of mapping processes, ontological mapping and epistemic mapping. According to Kövecses (2001), ontological mapping distinguishes the correlation between basic component elements in the source and target concepts. It is used to make sense of events, actions, activities and states, as in the example ‘Anger is Fire’:

(4)

Anger is Fire

- a. “Source concept: FIRE Target concept: ANGER
- b. The fire is anger.
- c. The thing burning is the angry person.
- d. The intensity of fire is the intensity of the anger.
- e. The duration of fire is the duration of being angry.” (as cited by Chen & Lai, 2013: 16)

Epistemic mapping, on the other hand, is concerned more with details in making sense of these concepts and draws on more elaborate and complex correlations (Chen & Lai, 2013: 16). “For instance, the conceptual metaphor ‘Anger is Fire’ encompasses epistemic mappings as shown below:

Source: Things can burn at a low intensity for a long time and then burst into flame.

Target: People can be angry at a low intensity for a long time and then suddenly become extremely angry.

Source: Fires are dangerous to things nearby.

Target: Angry people are dangerous to other people.” (Lakoff 1986a: 20)

Conceptual metaphor has received increasing attention from many cognitive linguists, including Kövecses and Szabco (1996) who have systematised metaphor, especially idioms, based on its common concepts. According to Demjén and Semino (2016:1), conceptual metaphors are defined as mappings across conceptual domains, while a target domain (e.g., knowledge about FIRE) is partly structured in terms of a different source domain (e.g. knowledge about FIRE). A cognitive linguistic view of metaphors consists of several components (see B Each of these components is an aspect of metaphor, and all these aspects are involved in metaphor variation cross-linguistically (Kövecses, 2005: 117–8). This research will aim to distinguish which of these components of metaphor influence the learning of English conceptual metaphors by Kuwaiti EFL students, with more focus on entailment and the positive or negative connotations of metaphors. One important method that has been used in teaching metaphor, and that is motivated by conceptual mapping, is imagery processing, introduced by Boers (2000).

B. Teaching Idioms Through Imagery Processing:

Boers (2000) argues that an awareness of etymology through image processing is an effective way to learn vocabulary. Imagery processing happens when an image is used to represent the source domain of a metaphorical expression in order to create a visual relation between the

image and the way it is used in the expression. In other words, it helps to create a link between an image and a word, which is assumed to ease vocabulary processing. In order to explain how the method works, Boers' (2000) experiment is discussed in detail. In the experiment, students were asked to describe economic growth and unemployment figures using different methods as follows: First, the students were divided into an experimental group and a control group. Second, both groups were given a vocabulary list that described UPWARD and DOWNWARD in economic trends, for example:

(5)

UPWARD DOWNWARD

t= transitive/ i=intransitive

Verb Noun Verb Noun

increase (t/ i) Increase decrease(t/ i) decrease

rise (i) rise fall (i)fall

grow (i) growth shrink (i)

Both groups received the same introduction that encouraged them to use the listed terms above and avoid using simple expressions like go up and go down. Third, the experimental group was given a further introduction. These expressions call up specific images:

(6)

a. Rockets or aeroplanes: soar, skyrocket, crash.

b. Diving: plunge, dive.

c. Mountain climbing mount, creep up, go downhill, slide, peak.

Conversely, the control group were given a different extra introduction that stated:

(7)

- a. “some expressions indicate speed change:
 - fast change: soar, skyrocket, plunge, dive.
 - gradual change: creep up, mount, slide, go downhill.
 - or reaching a limit: peak, crash. (Boers, 2000: 558)

In the experiment, Boers hoped to encourage the experimental group to apply imagery processing of the word list given. Consequently, the experimental group obtained the best results because the image processing method drew their attention to the source domain of the given expressions, and hence they developed a better understanding of its natural relation to the direction and speed of motion. Figurative expressions such as idioms, collocations etc. can often be systematically traced back to a limited number of source domains or metaphoric themes that make it easier for the learner to make sense of them (ibid.:553). However, not all idioms can be captured under identified themes; some might be too vague to be linked to an image, and some might have been semantically bleached due to frequent usage, so that the original meaning is no longer recognizable. Semantic bleaching, as defined in Meillet (1912), is a process “by which items which were once fully lexical become increasingly grammatical: among other things, their meaning tends to bleach, moving from concrete to abstract, and eventually grammatical” (as cited by Luraghi, 2006: 1). Using imagery processing, in this sense, has its limitations.

C. Teaching Idioms by both Metaphor Mapping and Imagery Processing:

Other researchers, including Chen and Lai (2013), have used awareness activities when teaching metaphors and have shown them to be successful. These activities are based on Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) metaphor mapping, and on Boers’ (2000) modified approach of “Imagery Processing”. However, the meanings of these conceptual metaphors are explained through

metaphor mapping and based on the context in which the expression is located. However, this does not teach the student the connotation of the expression, whether it is positive or negative, or how to use it appropriately. This is what I target in this research. I develop a method based on a combination of methods that have been used in the field, i.e. conceptual metaphor mapping and analogical reasoning. Meanwhile one new method used in this study is based on Weirzbecka's (1992, 2003) theory of semantic primitives (universal human concepts in culture). Semantic primitives might help students explain how they culturally associate negative or positive connotations with different metaphors.

2.3.5.3. Method 3. Teaching Metaphor Through Translation

Toyokura (2016) argues that translation is an appropriate method to help boost EFL learners' metaphorical competence. The findings of this research support the notion that translation is beneficial for the development of receptive metaphorical competence by Japanese EFL learners. It claims that the key to enhancing receptive metaphorical competence is a balanced combination of explicit teaching and deductive learning. Deductive learning is a teacher-centred approach to presenting new content to learners through rules and then examples, followed by practice. This research used the process of translation as follows:

1. Students were encouraged to not simply do literal translation (word for word). They were prompted to decode linguistic information, thus bearing in mind the gap between "what is said and what is meant".
2. They were asked to fill such gaps by exploring the conceptual base of examples, thus providing a hypothesised message of the meaning.

3. Then they encoded the message with some adjustments depending on the target audience and culture (ibid.:98).

This method combines translation with conceptual thinking. It focuses not only on literal translation or on the final conceptual meaning, but also helps the students to engage with the conceptual system of the L2 in order to arrive at a better translation. Using translation is a traditional method that may not be fruitful if the conceptual system of the L2 is not taken into consideration when translating metaphors.

The method proposed in this research draws its examples from The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training's English textbooks and teachers' authentic teaching materials. The methods from the studies examined above inspired the development of the teaching intervention used in this study. The teaching intervention combines some aspects of the translation method with conceptual mapping. However, this study uses an open-ended style of translation, asking students to explain what they understand from the metaphorical expressions given. The reason behind not implementing a translation task is that students might limit their answers to giving a literal meaning. Furthermore, as done in most of these studies, I explore how EFL students make sense of different English metaphors in a new context, Kuwait. Furthermore, this study explores how students associate positive or negative connotations with English metaphors.

2.3.5.4. Summary

First, research has suggested that it can be difficult for EFL/ESL learners to understand and interpret metaphors in the target language (Littlemore 2001c; Littlemore, 2003a; Low et al., 2008;

Simpson and Mendis, 2003). Therefore, students might benefit from metaphor instruction in their L2. In addition, it is suggested that an EFL context has certain advantages and disadvantages when it comes to figurative language. Students on EFL courses are usually from the same cultural and linguistic background, depending on particular contexts, which makes it easier for the teacher to predict learners' difficulties and select guided lesson plans for the entire classroom. As this study was carried out in an EFL context, this issue had to be taken into consideration.

Next, it has been recommended that explicit instruction can be a beneficial method to raise learners' awareness of and competence in metaphorical language (Littlemore & Low 2006a; Low, 1988). For example, guided querying routines encourage students to think figuratively and increase their metaphor awareness (Littlemore & Low, 2006a). The current study aims to expand on previous research by actually applying these recommendations along with insights from the studies reviewed here in the language classroom. One of the goals is to explore explicit metaphor instruction in learning/ teaching metaphors. In doing so, I use a quasi-experimental design method to explore how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of different types of metaphors. The following section discusses metaphor and culture.

2.4 Metaphor and Culture

Danesi (1999) states that culture is regarded as the systematic compilation of concepts that use language as a tool to exchange thought. One means of conveying such concepts linguistically is by metaphor. In other words, metaphors have a unique quality; they reflect peoples' thoughts and views of their culture or subculture. Furthermore, people of a particular culture or subculture instinctively comprehend the linguistic content of their metaphors (Kövecses, 2005: xiv).

Metaphorical expressions are used differently based on the culture from which they emerge, thereby rendering them difficult to understand by people from outside that culture (Lowery, 2013:13). For example, different social groups use different elements of their world or nature to form these metaphors and have different ways of interpreting them. Kövecses (2005: 3) provides the following example: LOVE is conceptualised as JOURNEY, UNITY, HUNTING and so forth in English, Arabic and Chinese cultures. However, “LOVE IS FLYING A KITE” in certain Chinese dialects (Yang, 2002, as cited by Kövecses, 2005:3). “One of them is the case in which a culture uses a set of different source domains for a particular target domain, or conversely, a culture uses a particular source domain for the conceptualization of a set of different target domains” (Kövecses, 2005: 67). “Another situation involves cases in which the set of conceptual metaphors for a particular target domain is roughly the same in two languages/ cultures, but one language/ culture shows a clear preference for some of the conceptual metaphors that are employed” (Kövecses, 2005:68). “Finally, there may be some conceptual metaphors that appear to be unique to a given language/ culture. These require that both the source and the target be unique to the culture” (Kövecses, 2005: 68). For people to learn and understand another language, they must understand the world through the metaphors, idioms and grammatical patterns used by native speakers of that language (Bakhtin, Holquist and Liapunov, 1990: 2). In relation to the previous discussion, this research explores how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of different English metaphors, particularly culture-based metaphors that do not have a similar or direct equivalent in their L1 (Kuwaiti Arabic). The following subsection briefly sheds light on inter-cultural communication proficiency.

2.4.1 Inter-cultural awareness

Exploring the relationships between culture, language and communication through exploring local cultures and exploring language learning are some of the recommendations for incorporating inter-cultural awareness in the classroom (Baker, 2012a). Intercultural awareness, according to Baker (2015), focuses on “the INTER or TRANS cultural dimension”, where there is no apparent language-culture-nation connection, especially in worldwide English usage (ibid. :3). As a result, an intercultural awareness approach moves away from treating cultures as discrete entities that can be compared, e.g., “in British culture, people do...., but in Italian culture, people do...” (ibid.: 3), to examining communication in which cultural differences, at many levels, may be important to understanding but do not make a general statement about cultural difference (Baker, 2015:3). Patterns of culture change and differentiate, according to Benedict (2005). Since these social patterns vary from one place to another, various responses are triggered by people who do not belong to a certain culture (Ariffin et al., 2012). These responses may either be positive or negative. People’s behaviour towards other cultures or, shall we say, foreign cultures may affect the attitude of those people, especially given the unfamiliar aspects of the culture of the other. In this context, it is suggested that knowledge of the social patterns, skills and attitudes that enable people to work well and communicate effectively with individuals that belong to various cultures is vitally important. Intercultural awareness is concerned with several aspects, such as openness to diverse individuals, universal awareness, the ability to adapt to intercultural communication and intercultural sensitivity (Clarke et al., 2009). In fact, it is proposed that intercultural awareness reflects a behavioural approach to cultural diversity which helps

individuals deal with people who belong to various cultures (Wells, 2000). This is why knowledge of the beliefs, traditions and customs of another culture is without doubt a significant part of foreign language education. It has been argued that the structure of a language has a great impact on the way speakers of that language conceive the world around them (Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, 1956, as cited in Cubelli et al., 2011). When learning metaphors, it is important to understand one's own culture and the target culture (Gudykunst, 1983a, 1983b). In the same vein, one might argue that teaching the target culture to foreign language learners may not be an easy task; it is not merely the transmission of information related to a group of people belonging to a particular community (Kramsch, 1993). Learning a foreign language does not only involve learning communicative skills, but also getting a sense of the manoeuvres one can use to control the meanings and grammatical features of that language, even learning how to interpret or violate prescribed norms, in both one's own culture and that of the other (Kramsch, *ibid.*). Therefore, cultural awareness may have benefits in learning/ teaching metaphors. Admittedly, there are several studies that have examined the role of intercultural awareness, and especially the area concerning teaching the 'target culture'. But the term 'target culture' is problematic as it does not stand for one monolithic culture, and questions about which 'target culture' to teach arise (which I elaborate on in section 2.4.2). Furthermore, several studies have examined the effect of culture on language, arguing that teaching a target language in isolation of its culture is incomplete and imprecise. In fact, many researchers such as Vernier et al. (2008: 278) view teaching of the 'target culture' as a fifth skill for L2 learners, since it improves their learning experience in its entirety. It has also been proposed that calling teaching the 'target culture' a fifth skill is in fact an understatement, since its role is more significant than that; the culture

functions in the background from the first day of learning (Kramsch, 1993: 1). The acquisition of a new language does not only mean that one needs to learn the grammar, sounds and vocabulary of said language; knowledge of the people who speak that language along with the culture that accompanies it is indisputably vital for L2 learners (Kramsch, *ibid.*). The need for cultural awareness in foreign language teaching stems from the fact that the majority of language learners, who have not had sufficient exposure to the culture of the community associated with the language they are learning, encounter numerous problems in interacting with the speakers of such a community (Bada, 2000: 101). This may be due to the fact that L2 learners may not perceive 'native speakers' of the language they are learning as real people (Chastain, 1971). The so-called genuine examples based on real-life situations found in grammar textbooks may seem unreal to L2 learners (Chastain, *ibid.*). Hence, being exposed to the 'target culture' in real-life situations not only provides insights into a language from a cultural perspective, but also helps L2 learners connect arbitrary forms and sounds of a certain language to real individuals and events (Chastain, *ibid.*).

In addition, one might argue that raising the cultural awareness of L2 learners could have substantial benefits for their communication skills. For instance, Stainer (1971) indicates that boosting the cultural awareness of L2 learners might give them an incentive to study the target language and decipher meanings pertinent to that culture (cited by Bada and GENC, 2005). Furthermore, Cooke (1970) explains that in a broad sense, raising L2 learners' cultural awareness can also contribute to one's general knowledge pertaining to the target language's culture, such as art, music, geography, literature and history (cited by Bada and GENC, 2005). Sun (2007) also indicates that better cultural awareness may help L2 learners avoid the confusion and

embarrassment that result from a lack of knowledge about culture-based expressions. He explains that L2 learners usually resort to the literal translation of L2 expressions, causing them to fall into the trap of misunderstanding. For instance, *have you eaten your supper?* is considered a way of starting a conversation in Chinese; it is not actually a question about someone's eating habits (Sun, *ibid.*). Similarly, learners of English as a foreign language face the same problem with expressions such as *What's up?* or *How is it going?* (Sun, *ibid.*). These learners find it difficult to respond to such questions, since there is no fixed answer they can memorise. Such expressions are just ways of starting a conversation in English (Sun, *ibid.*). Furthermore, culture classes provide an engaging atmosphere that helps L2 learners become more involved in the study of the language associated with that culture; they raise their curiosity about the culture. For example, it has been observed that such classes are particularly interesting for students because they incorporate activities like researching the habits and traditions of the culture, including art, dance, music, songs, dishes, marriage customs etc. (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

All in all, it seems that cultural awareness has a motivating impact on the overall learning process, in general, and on learners, in particular. It opens the eyes of language learners to the similarities and differences found between various cultures. Being culturally aware includes: (1) knowledge of one's own culture; (2) the impact of culture on language choices, communication and identity; (3) general information that is associated with culture, i.e., art, literature and traditions; and finally (4) culture-specific aspects related to the target language such as culturally based words. Next, I will discuss culture in EFL, and the complexity and multiplicity of culture.

2.4.2 Culture in EFL

It is essential to understand the difference between EFL and ELF before talking about culture in an EFL context. According to Seidlhofer (2001, 2005), the term "English as a lingua franca" (ELF) is a way of referring to communication in English between speakers who speak different first languages. According to Crystal (2003) since only around one out of every four English users in the world is a native speaker (cited by Jenkins, 2004), most ELF interactions take place between 'non-native' English speakers. ELF slightly differs from English as a foreign language (EFL), which is where learners are taught 'Standard English' with a particular focus on formalities, grammar and language functions. However, Standard English does not reflect a standard or target culture for EFL learners to be exposed to and learn. According to Baker (2009: 573), "it seems unlikely that a culture of EFL could ever be established or described" due to the cultural differences brought by users. If we agree that teaching the target culture is necessary when teaching a language, then what is the target culture that must be considered when teaching EFL? Baker (2009) argues that English culture depends on the speaker's own culture; for example, the English language in Taiwan cannot be separated from the culture of a Taiwanese speaker. Therefore, it is conditioned by the country of the speaker and his/her linguistic community. Nevertheless, I think that a distinction should be drawn between two types of EFL learners: The first type are those referred to by Baker (2009) who could be considered SLE, since English to them is elevated to the level of a second language, or to whom English culture is well entrenched in their history by colonialization or war. The second type of EFL learners are those who are not exposed to

English as a second language or those whose countries have not been integrated or effected by English culture via war or colonization.

In Kuwait, we have both types of learners (discussed in more detail below), but my research investigates the situation with the second type of EFL learners, those who see English as a foreign language. To them, English culture can be separated from their own distinct culture. Thus, the question remains, what is this English culture that should be considered for the second type of EFL learners? Is it American, Canadian, British, Australian or New Zealand culture? Which culture are we talking about? If, for example, we say British English, then is it Yorkshire, Mancunian expressions etc.? Is it a 'natural' culture or a 'fabricated' one; one that is portrayed to learners through media or through the English curriculum where they were taught in their countries?

Another important question that I consider when discussing cultural awareness is which type of culture as an English teacher should I focus on to raise my students' awareness of English metaphors, is it the 'large' culture or the 'small' culture as proposed in Holliday (1999)? According to Holliday (1999), in applied linguistics, it is necessary to differentiate between two types of cultures: small culture and large culture. Holliday (1999) argues that:

...the large culture paradigm is by its nature vulnerable to a culturist reduction of foreign students, teachers and their educational contexts. In contrast, a small culture paradigm attaches culture to small social groupings or activities where there is cohesive behaviour, and thus avoids culturist ethnic, national or international stereotyping.

(ibid.:237)

In other words, “large” culture is a stereotypical and reductionist view of culture. It reduces a very large thing called culture into symbols, folklore and a national culture. For instance, examples of the UK’s large culture are reduced to red buses and telephone boxes, whereas “small” culture is concerned with how people make meaning, interact, behave and communicate in their everyday language. After establishing the difference between ‘large’ and ‘small’ culture, I can say that even though most English textbooks from the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training are full of examples of large culture, such as pictures and texts, e.g. the red London bus in British culture etc., I focus on ‘small’ culture, as my study is about learning/teaching metaphors. Thus, it is about raising awareness of ‘small’ culture which is concerned with how people think and use the English language.

Many researchers who have worked on teaching the target ‘English culture’ were not able to clearly identify this culture in their research (e.g., Liu & Zhong, 1999; Dejiang, 2000; Zarei & Khalessi, 2011). Furthermore, Harumi (2002) believes that when teaching culture in an English classroom, one should consider that the English Language does not only refer to native speakers of English but also belongs to different nations who speak English as a second language. Thus, these cultures should also be considered and taught to EFL/ESL learners, which makes identifying which ‘English culture’ to teach even more complicated.

I do not believe that there could be any consensus on the definition of English culture which is used while teaching English to EFL learners. The expanding literature on World Englishes and the diversity within Englishes (Jenkins, 2007) is still an ongoing debate. As well as the importance of raising awareness of the ‘plurilithic’ nature of English (Hall et al., 2013), it is important to acknowledge that the EFL language classroom is a space to raise awareness about

the complexity and multiplicity of culture, not a space to teach about a singular culture (for more details see Chapter. 1). Nevertheless, it should be possible to try to extract a version of this culture by looking at the English curriculum taught in a given country. Therefore, I propose that, in Kuwait, one way to identify this culture is by investigating the representations of 'English Culture' in the material taught to students in the English language books used in the governmental sector and by the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training. I have specifically selected the English curriculum in the governmental sector because most of the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training's students (who are the target of this experiment, and who, I will show, see 'English culture' and language as foreign and distinct from their own) have graduated from governmental schools. The following section lists the study's research questions.

2.5 Research Questions

This study focuses on how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of different types of English metaphors and explores the impact of a metaphor-teaching intervention on learners' ability to make sense of metaphors. In particular, the study seeks to address the following questions:

2. What strategies do Kuwaiti EFL learners use to make sense of English metaphors?
3. How do Kuwaiti EFL learners attach cultural associations to metaphors?
4. To what extent can an explicit teaching intervention that utilises conceptual mapping, semantic primitives, and the use of analogical reasoning enhance the learning of metaphors?

This research will not only benefit Kuwaiti teachers and students in the teaching and learning of English metaphors, it will also serve as an attempt to propose a method for overcoming some of the challenges that EFL learners face in learning metaphors and promote the importance of learning/ teaching metaphors in EFL classrooms around the world. Next is a summary of important elements discussed in this chapter.

2.6 Summary

This chapter first engaged first with explaining what metaphors are. It has shown how metaphors are viewed in the literature, and how metaphors function, as well as the different types of metaphor and how they can be identified using different methods such as MIP. The second section addressed the learning/ teaching of metaphors by EFL learners. It shed light on the difficulties EFL learners encounter when confronted with metaphor in their L2, especially if their first language is culturally very different from their L2 (Trim,2007). Moreover, they learn metaphors and strategies to make sense of these metaphors. The third section conducted a detailed discussion about the relation between metaphor and culture in EFL language learning. The discussion extended to address the context of the study. The methodological decisions and procedures used to address the above questions are presented in the following section.

Chapter 3. Methodology & Research Design

3.1 Introduction

After introducing the purpose of this study in relation to existing literature, which is discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, this chapter describes the development of the research design and examines the methodological considerations and justifications that contributed to the development of the empirical part of the study. As stated in Chapter 1, the purpose of this mixed methods study is to explore how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of different types of metaphors and to understand the effectiveness of explicit instruction in English metaphors. It is hoped that this investigation can develop a deeper understanding of metaphor teaching and sense-making. The study will address four research questions (see 2.5)

The methodology chapter is structured as follows: section 3.2 presents the rationale for a mixed methods design. Section 3.3 discusses quasi-experimental design. Section 3.4 discusses the context of study and the selection of participants. It includes details about the study's location, how the English language is taught in Kuwait and cultural aspects associated with learning it. Section 3.5 concerns the identification and selection of metaphors for the study and comprises three subsections: subsection 3.5.1 relates to the selection of metaphors from the teaching textbooks and materials used in the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training. Subsection 3.5.2 focuses on the method of metaphor identification in this study. Subsection 3.5.3 concerns the classification of metaphors based on their complexity level and how this was used in questionnaires. Section 3.4 is dedicated to the design of the research tools. Section 3.6

presents the approaches used in the data analysis. Section 3.7 Data collection and final administration. Section 3.8 discusses the validity and reliability of the methods. Finally, the chapter concludes with section 3.10. a briefing on the limitations of the study.

3.2 Rationale for a Mixed Methods Design

A mix of qualitative and quantitative methods is used in this study, thereby capitalising on the benefits of both research paradigms (Castro et al., 2010). According to Creswell (2014), qualitative data usually include open-ended questions without predetermined answers, while quantitative data include closed-ended answers, as found in questionnaires. Conversely, studies that adopt a quantitative approach may obtain simplistic, decontextualized and reductionist findings; thus, they are unable to report on the significance individuals place on issues in their lives (Dörnyei, 2007: 45) Consequently, a study adopting a mixed-methods approach is able to strike a balance between the advantages and disadvantages of both in order to compensate for the weaknesses of each form of data (ibid. , 2007: 45; Creswell, 2014).

This research utilised a background information questionnaire, pre, post and delayed questionnaires, focus-group interviews and a teaching intervention (see Figure 1 for an outline of the research tools and data collection process). The questionnaire primarily comprises open-ended questions. These types of questions require qualitative analysis to reveal the main themes in the data. The purpose of the pre, post and delayed questionnaires is to discover the different strategies EFL learners use to make sense of English metaphors of different complexity levels. A quantitative approach is adopted to measure differences between pre, post and delayed questionnaire results, before and after focus-group discussions and the teaching intervention,

and to compare with a control group. Moreover, it is used to measure the effect of differences in proficiency levels among the two groups of participants (details relating to validity are discussed in section 107).

3.3 Quasi- experimental design

This research follows many research studies in applied linguistics that have aimed to establish unambiguous causal links through the application of experimental research designs (Dörnyei, 2007). Experimental designs are used to address evaluation questions about the success and effect of programmes. They raise the researcher's confidence about observed outcomes, which are the result of a certain programme implemented instead of being a function of different events. Thus, it can help educators who look for evidence to assess the effect of a programme being researched that will help in re-informing decisions about any approach they select (Gribbons & Herman, 1996: 1). There are different types of experimental design, the two most common general categories are: true experimental design, and quasi-experimental design.

According to Gribbons & Herman (1996: 2), true experiments are the strongest type of experiment design. True experiments involve the random assignment of participants into two types of groups: 'experimental groups' which are exposed to a particular treatment or condition, and 'control groups' which are similar to the experimental group in every aspect except for the exposure to that special condition. Any differences in a comparison between the results for the two groups should be attributed only to that particular condition (Johnson and Christensen, 2004). However, in a complex educational context it is hard to control all the important variables that might affect a programme's outcome. Thus, randomly assigning students in educational

settings is not a realistic or feasible task, especially when different conditions are less desirable. This leads researchers to use a quasi-experimental design instead (Gribbons & Herman, 1996: 1; Doughty & Williams, 1998).

A quasi-experimental design can be viewed as an 'intervention' used as a treatment composed of the elements being evaluated. This treatment is tested to see how well it achieves its objectives. However, a quasi-experimental design lacks random assignment (Cook & Campbell, 1979: 14). Thus, assignments are done by self-selection. Reichardt (2009) claims that there are four types of quasi-experiments: a) the one group 'pre-test-post-test' design, b) the interrupted time-series design, c) the regression-discontinuity design, and d) the non-equivalent-group design. The one group 'pre-test-post-test' design is when one test occurs before the treatment and another after the treatment to see the effect of the treatment itself. However, any factors that might be responsible for the differences found in the results other than the treatment itself are called a threat to internal validity (Reichardt, 2009). This threat to internal validity is often present in a one-group-pre-test -post-test design. These threats come in different forms, e.g. Maturation, History, Seasonality, Testing, Instrumentation, Attrition (experimental morality) and Statistical regression. Another type of quasi-experimental design is the interrupted time-series, this is when a number of pre-test observations are collected over time before the treatment is applied. Then, after the treatment is introduced, a number of post-test observations are collected over time. An interrupted time-series design is generally liable to fewer threats to internal validity than a one-group, pre-test- post-test design. This is because an interrupted time-series design involves "multiple observations collected before the treatment is introduced and multiple observations tend to diminish the effects of testing over time" (p.52). The third type is the

regression-discontinuity design where participants are assessed on a quantitative assignment variable and assigned to a treatment condition using a cut-off value for that variable. “That is, participants with scores above a specified cut-off value on the quantitative assignment variable are assigned to either the experimental or comparison conditions, while participants with scores below the cut-off value are assigned to the alternative condition” (Reichardt, 2009: 57). The fourth type is the non-equivalent- group design which I will be using in my research. In previous groups, the one-group pre-test-post-test design and the interrupted time-series design in most of these treatments were based on comparisons over time.

In contrast, the non-equivalent-group design is based on a comparison across non-randomized assignments of different participants, e.g. individuals or other units. Adding a pre-test to the non-equivalent group design boosts its credibility. However, there are reasons that justify using a quasi-experimental design. Reichardt (2009) claims that there are two reasons to justify using a quasi-experimental design. The first reason is to acknowledge that true experiments that use randomized treatments obtain more reliable data than quasi-experiments. However, it is important to recognize that the application of randomized experiments is not always possible due to either ethical or practical constraints. Therefore, some researchers resort to using a quasi-experimental design. The second reason is that science often progresses, thus applying different methods to it will result in equivalent differences in strengths and weaknesses (Mark & Reichardt, 2004). Therefore, even though quasi-experiments in comparison to randomized experiments have certain weaknesses they do, nonetheless, have particular strengths that can be used in certain situations to achieve credible results (Reichardt, 2009: 46-7).

Bearing the above in mind, my research is conducted in an educational context, where the application of a true experimental design and tightly controlled research environment is very rarely feasible, and therefore a common method is to use intact class groups, i.e. a quasi-experimental design (Dörnyei, 2007). In other words, this research attempts to avoid using 'intact class groups'; rather, it relies on volunteer students who meet the criteria of being at an English upper-intermediate level and an advanced level in the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training; details of the participant sample and selection are discussed in section 3.2.2. The validity, advantages and disadvantages of the experimental approach are discussed in more detail in section 3.5.

For the purposes of this research, a pre, post and delayed post-test quasi-experimental design was devised or, to be more precise, a non-equivalent (pre-test/ post-test) control- group design. This design involves the selection of an experimental group A and a control group B without random assignment (Creswell, 2014). Both groups complete a background Information survey and take a pre- test, a post-test and a delayed post-test, but only the experimental group(s) receive(s) the treatment. In this research, two experimental groups received different metaphor instruction treatments: a teaching intervention and an interview. While the two control groups were given the pre-, post- and delayed post-tests but received no treatment at all. The control group was included in order to provide a baseline for comparison.

The study was conducted in person during term time at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Kuwait. The experiment consisted of 1) a background information questionnaire, 2) a pre-questionnaire, 3) an interview in a focus group, 4) a reflective task, 5) a

teaching intervention, 6) a post-questionnaire and 7) a delayed post-questionnaire (see Figure 1).

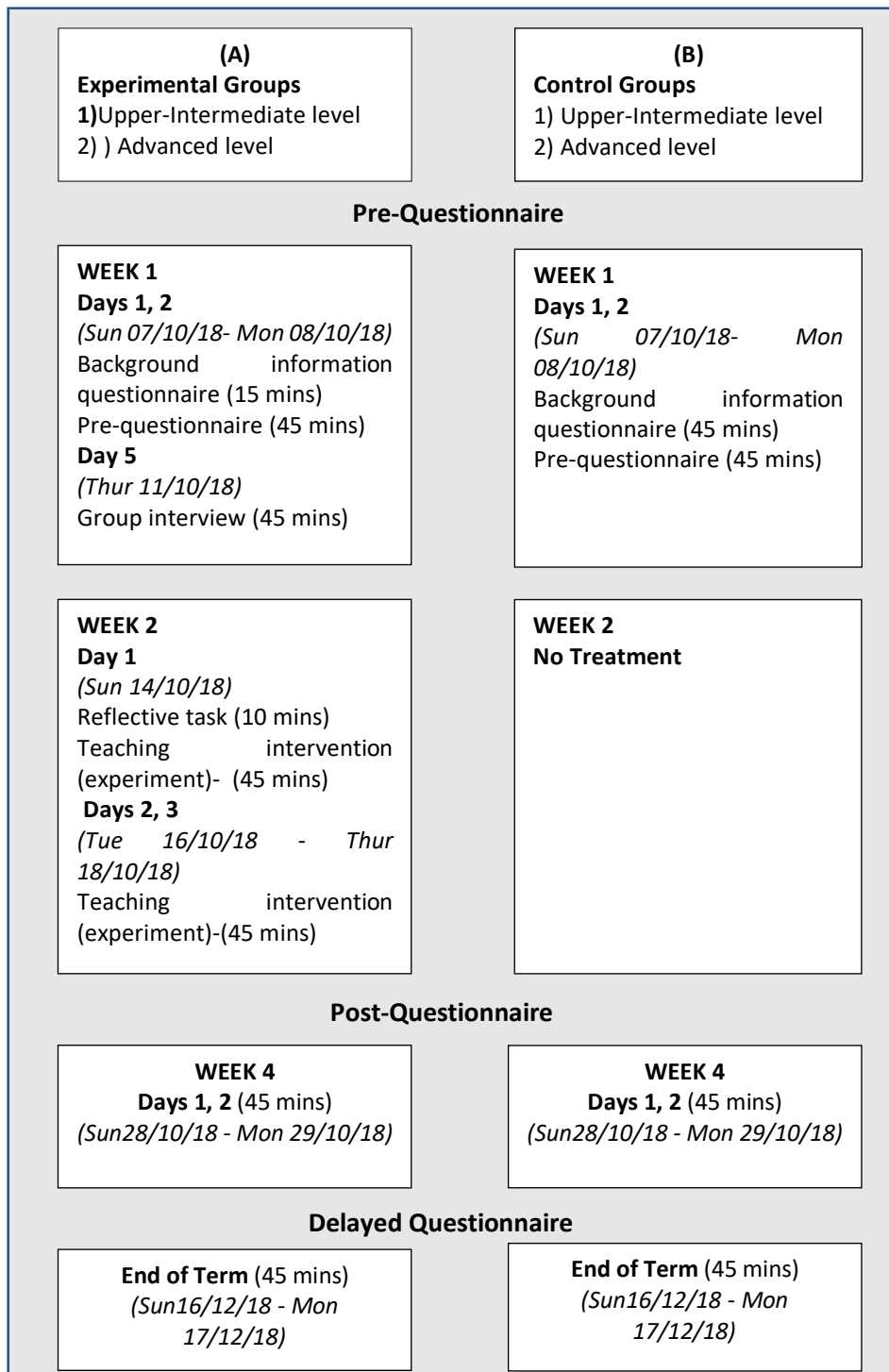


Figure 1: Data Collection Process Outline

3.4 Context of the Study and Selection of Participants

This section explains the study's context and location, as well as the actions taken by the researcher to get access to the study field. The section finishes with information on the number of participants and their selection.

3.4.1 Context and Location of the Study

This study is set in Kuwait in the Middle East. Kuwait is known for its hybrid culture, as discussed by El-Dib (1999), who defines it as a context that "suits neither the definition of a second language setting nor that of a foreign language world" (Green and Oxford, 1995, p.268). Kuwait's population is cosmopolitan, it is made up of people from various nationalities speaking a variety of first languages and communicating in English (Kuwait Information Office, 2002). That said, it is important to have background information about where the study took place in Kuwait and some background information on the target participants in this study.

The setting for this research project is the College of Basic Studies at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, a public education establishment in Ardyiah, Kuwait. In Kuwaiti state schools, male and female students are taught separately. This study considers only female learners. Before discussing the teaching of English at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, I provide a brief overview of the wider context of teaching English in Kuwait. English is taught as a foreign language in Kuwaiti state schools. The aim is to develop learners' linguistic competence and performance and enable them to use English effectively, accurately and fluently across the four main skill domains: listening, speaking, reading and

writing. Children in Kuwait start to learn English from year one in primary school (6-7 years old) and continue for 12 years.

Upon completion of the secondary stage, students are expected to have acquired a proficiency level of English sufficient to enable them to pursue higher education. Most careers in Kuwait demand a strong command of English. Therefore, the status of English has risen dramatically over the last century. The Ministry of Education has made great efforts to reform and develop the teaching of English to Kuwaiti people. Most students who graduate from the secondary stage and want to continue their education in government higher education attend Kuwait University or the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training.

The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training is a governmental establishment that was built in 1982 to meet the high labour demand and address the shortage of employees with technical skills. The decree that established the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training specified two sectors: Applied Educational Colleges and Training Colleges. Five colleges are included in Applied Educational Colleges: College of Basic Education, College of Business, College of Technology, College of Health Science and the College of Nursing. The Training Colleges comprise eight institutes: the Electricity and Water Institute, Nursing Institute, Telecommunication and Navigation Institute, Industrial Training Institute, Constructional Training Institute, Vocational Training Institute, Beauty and Fashion Institute and the Institute of Office Administration and Library Studies.

Students attending the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training are expected to be proficient in English; upon admission, they must pass a placement test. Students are required to achieve a mark of 70% or higher to pass the placement test. Those whose grades fall

between 60% and 69% are accepted onto an intensive English remedial course offered by the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training to help them attain the level required to continue their studies. The placement test is administered because most courses in the Colleges of Health and Science and the College of Nursing are taught in English; thus, English is a prerequisite. English is also taught in the College of Business and the College of Technology. Furthermore, Kuwaiti undergraduates have the option to specialise in English Language in the College of Basic Education, where they are taught and prepared to teach or use the English language in their future careers.

Following an explanation of where the study takes place, the following parts go over the actions taken by the researcher to gain access to the study field and the method used to recruit volunteers.

3.4.2 Negotiating Access to the Study Field

Numerous stages and steps were followed to conduct this study at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training and to gain access to volunteers. First, ethical approval was granted by Manchester Metropolitan University to pursue this study in March 2018 (see Appendix I). Second, permission was obtained in the form of an official letter from the supervisory team to conduct this study in October 2018 to submit to the Kuwait Cultural Office UK and the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training. Third, permission was obtained from Kuwait Cultural Office UK to conduct this study in October 2018. Fourth, oral permission was obtained from the Language Centre in the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, and the Head of the English Department in the College of Business Studies. Fifth, a visit

was made by the researcher in April 2018 to the Head of the Language Centre. Here, a briefing was given on the study's purpose and the reasons for seeking permission to collect the data required for the study. Sixth, approval was granted, and emails were sent by the Language Centre to the Head of the English department with details of the study's purpose, and a call for volunteers to participate was circulated among staff in the English department. A request was also posted on the students' announcement boards in both the English department and the Language Centre.

A preliminary visit to the Language Centre, to the English department, was arranged via the following steps: First, the researcher arranged with the secretary of the Language Centre for a time to call the Head of the Language Centre three weeks before arriving in Kuwait. The purpose of this call was to confirm the visit and data collection time. Second, during this visit, the researcher managed to meet with the Head of the Language Centre, the Head of the English Department and several teaching staff in the English department. Again, the researcher explained the purpose of her visit and the study, the type of volunteers required for her study, and a proposed timetable for conducting the research. Third, the Head of Language Centre, the Head of the English department, the teachers in the English department and staff members were very cooperative and helpful. For instance, it had previously been announced (a week before the researcher's arrival) by the Language Centre department through the students' noticeboard, and by teachers to their students, that the researcher is a PhD student and needed volunteers to participate in the study. The researcher was assigned a temporary office by the Head of the English Department. Moreover, the researcher was given a timetable that included the times and

locations of classrooms available for use during the research period by the Head of the Schedule Committee in the English department.

Finally, it is worth mentioning some reasons why the researcher selected her volunteers from College of Business Studies and not from other branches in the Language Centre. First, the Language Centre department is situated in the College of Business Studies, which made the formalities and processing documents easier and quicker. Second, the number of students in the College of Business of Studies was known to be high, which meant the likelihood of recruiting a good number of volunteers was also high. The number of participants and their selection is discussed below in the data collection and final administration section. Finally, the location of the College of Business Studies near to the researcher's temporary residence saved significant travelling time.

3.4.3 Participant numbers and selection

Barkhuizen (2018: 120) argues that the number of participants in any study primarily depends on the study's purpose alongside several other factors, such as: availability of participants, specific requirements of the research design and methods, time constraints, human resources and organisational structures within research sites, such as class sizes and timetabling.

In relation to the above, the current study was based on the following factors: first, the availability of participants who volunteered at the time of data collection in October 2018. Second, the class size and seating capacity in each classroom determined that the number of students in each group should not exceed 50 participants so as to accommodate them in a comfortable setting. Third, each participant's timetable determined when they could participate

in this study. Fourth, the time constraints for the researcher: namely, four continuous weeks for the first stage of data collection (finding volunteers, administering the pre-questionnaire, interviews and the teaching intervention, then the post-questionnaire. For further information, see section 3.6 for data tools). The last part of data collection (delayed-post questionnaire) took place over two days in December 2018. See M (Data collection stages) for the timeline. Fifth, the requirement of the focus groups interview design determined the number of participants required for interview (for more information, refer to section 3.6.2).

This study took place in the College of Business Studies. The participants required for this study had advanced or upper-intermediate level English. All had passed the pre-requisite subjects before majoring in English, viz., E099 (English for General Purposes 1) and E101 (English for General Purposes 2). Such courses are particularly important since they address several complex semantic structures in English, such as word choice and synonyms. Beginners were not assessed in this study because they had not yet completed the pre-requisite courses and lacked the learning input provided by the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training to Advanced and upper-intermediate level students. The focus on advanced and upper-intermediate learners was not intended to control the variability of the group, but rather to minimise factors that could affect the reliability of the study, e.g. receiving less teaching input.

Advanced and upper-intermediate students were chosen for this study as they had passed the pre-requisite subjects before majoring in English. These subjects are related to general English. Gaining a pass entitles students to major in their field and learn English for specific purposes. The selection of students who had attained advanced and upper-intermediate status was intended to demonstrate the impact of the level of language proficiency on their metaphor

sense-making. Furthermore, the teaching intervention used alongside their level of English may prove that metaphors can be easier to understand when learners have higher language proficiency.

Initially, a total of 200 students from College of Business Studies volunteered to participate in this study. From these, approximately 100 students were selected to form two groups (advanced and upper-intermediate levels) of around 50 participants in each; this large number allows for some withdrawals, which is common in qualitative studies. The mean age of the participants was 23 years. The first language of the participants was Kuwaiti Arabic (KA). However, from the 200 participants who volunteered, only 180 attended the pre-questionnaire day. Moreover, as the weeks passed, the number of participants decreased to a total of 152, as illustrated in Table 4 below.

Table 4: The numbers of students who volunteered and attended the pre-questionnaire, the post-questionnaire and the delayed post-questionnaire sessions

Group	Group Type	Pre-Q.	Post-Q.	Delayed Post-Q.
G.1 Upper-Intermediate	Control	40 students	40 students	36 students
G.2 Advanced	Control	46 students	42 students	39 students
G.3 Upper-Intermediate	Experimental	47 students	43 students	38 students
G.4 Advanced	Experimental	47 students	40 students	39 students
Total No. of students		180 students	165 students	152 students

The initial 180 participants were divided into four groups, each with 40– 47 participants in the first week of data collection. There were 87 upper-intermediate students and 93 advanced students, as shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Classification of participants

Group	Type of Group	No. of Participants	English Proficiency Level	Type of Test	
G.1	Control	40	Upper-Intermediate	Week 1:	Pre-Q.
				Week 4:	Post-Q.
				End of term:	D. Post-Q.
G.2	Control	46	Advanced	Week 1:	Pre-Q.
				Week 4:	Post-Q.
				End of term:	D. Post-Q.
G.3	Experimental	47	Upper-Intermediate	Week 1:	Pre-Q. F.G. Interview
				Week 2:	Reflective task Teaching intervention
				Week 4:	Post-Q.
				End of term:	D. Post-Q.
G.4	Experimental	47	Advanced	Week1:	Pre-Q. Group Interview
				Week 2:	Reflective Task Teaching Input
				Week 4:	Post Q
				End of term:	D. Post-Q.

Forty-seven upper-intermediate learners (G.3), and 47 advanced learners (G.4) formed the experimental group, and some volunteered to join the focus groups interviews. Both groups received a background information questionnaire (see section 3.4.4), a pre-questionnaire, a reflective task and the experimental teaching intervention method, a post-questionnaire and a delayed-post questionnaire. Forty upper-intermediate students (G.1) and 46 advanced students (G.2) formed the control group and did not receive the quasi-experimental teaching intervention. The control groups received only a background information questionnaire, a pre-questionnaire, a post-questionnaire and a delayed-post questionnaire. The participation procedure and the duration of each task were explained earlier in Figure 1. The content of the questionnaires is described in the following section (3.6.1.2). Next, the purpose of the background information test is addressed.

3.4.4 Seeking Background Information

It is important to have background information about the participants' English background. To address and test the research questions, information about the participants' English language learning history was collected before the treatment in the form of a background information questionnaire (see Fig. 1). This part of the questionnaire provides insights into the learners' language learning history. Moreover, the data gathered from the questionnaire were used to examine correlation with their answers in the pre-, post- and delayed questionnaire to assess whether their English background or exposure to the English language affected their sense-making of different types of metaphors, especially culture-based English metaphors (see section 4.2). After establishing where the study took place and who was participating in it, the next step is to go over how I chose the metaphors for this study.

3.5 Selection and Identification of Metaphors

This section discusses the metaphors used in this research. Sub-section 1 concerns the teaching materials from which metaphors for this research were chosen and selected. Sub-section 2 explains the method of metaphor identification adopted in this research, which follows the Pragglejaz Group's (2007) Metaphor Identification Process (MIP). Sub-section 3 discusses the method via which the metaphors are classified and arranged, depending on the expected difficulty level. The details of this classification are discussed in depth in section 3.5.2

3.5.1 Extraction and selection of metaphors from teaching materials

Since this study is concerned with teaching English metaphors in the EFL classroom in Kuwait, I decided to select metaphors that exist in teaching textbooks and materials used for teaching English at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training. These materials are grouped into two main streams: a) teaching books and b) authentic teaching materials used by English teachers at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training from the Language Centre. The following discussion justifies the selection of metaphors from these teaching sources.

3.5.1.1. *Teaching books:*

The metaphors were chosen from three different books used in the foundation year for all students at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, some of whom were majoring in English. All Public Authority for Applied Education and Training students must pass core General English subjects (099- 101). These books are:

- a) New Headway pre-intermediate student book, 3rd edn
- b) New Headway Intermediate student book, dig. edn.
- c) New Headway Intermediate Workbook, dig. edn.

(Liz and John Soars, 2014)

Foundation year textbooks were chosen deliberately for metaphor selection to ensure both upper-intermediate and advanced students had the same knowledge of English as taught to them at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training; hence, their expected proficiency levels would match (upper-intermediate and advanced). Moreover, current EFL

materials were chosen to avoid overly challenging the participants and to gather reliable data from study materials already available to them.

I applied the MIP to these textbooks, reading the three textbooks from cover to cover, including audio scripts, and extracting metaphors manually from each unit and the listening scripts at the end of each book. Then, a list of metaphors was compiled from all three textbooks, including page numbers as an indication (see Appendices B and C). Each metaphor was examined closely, following the MIP, and meanings were checked against dictionaries, such as Macmillan. Some corpora, such as the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the National British Corpus (NBC), were also checked to identify whether they had basic, contemporary or current meanings that might contrast with the contextual meanings of the identified metaphors (see Appendices B and C for extracted metaphors).

3.5.1.2. Authentic teaching materials:

The researcher held informal meetings with three teachers from the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training to learn about authentic teaching materials. Metaphorical expressions from authentic materials were added because English teachers at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training typically use authentic teaching materials as a supplementary tool alongside textbooks with Kuwaiti EFL students, exposing them to updated material. Therefore, it was important to add some authentic teaching materials (texts) used by the teachers for two reasons: a) the materials include metaphorical expressions that students encounter in class and must learn; and b) using both textbooks and authentic teaching materials allows for a variety of metaphorical expressions to be implemented in this study.

The researcher also contacted four other teachers via social media (WhatsApp) to gather additional materials. Most of the teachers reported using the following websites to support their teaching:

1. www.nationalgeographics.com
2. www.bbc.com
3. www.oup.com
4. www.busyteacher.com
5. www.cambridge.com
6. www.readworks.com
7. www.K12reader.com
8. www.Englishforeveryone.org
9. www.teachersclub.com
10. www.britishcouncil.com
11. www.onestepenglish.com
12. www.en.islcollective.com
13. www.linguahouse.com

The researcher followed the same process to extract and identify metaphors (MIP) (see section 3.5.2). Of all those identified in the sources discussed, the researcher chose only 25 metaphorical expressions. These were chosen as representative examples of the different complexity levels of metaphors identified in Charteris-Black (2002). Details of this classification are provided in the following section.

3.5.2 Identifying metaphors using MIP

As reviewed in Chapter 2, the MIP approach used by the Pragglejaz Group (2007) is adapted to identify and select metaphors for this study. The results of the Pragglejaz Group (2007: 13) proved that the MIP method can be used to conduct reliable metaphor identification and has been widely adopted in the literature (Littlemore, 2002; Charteris-Black, 2002). The MIP is a method comprising step-by-step instructions for readers or researchers to help identify metaphors (for more details please refer to section 2.2.1.5). An example of applying this process to a metaphorical expression is given below:

"It took them ages to get here."

A reading of the whole sentence:

Step 1: reveals that it is concerned with consuming time to arrive at a certain destination.

Step 2: the lexical units in the sentence are identified as follows, with slashes indicating the boundaries between lexical units:

It/ took /them /ages /to /get /here.

In Step 3: we consider each lexical unit in turn, starting from the beginning of the sentence. For each lexical unit, we outline our decisions for each of the three parts of step 3 in our procedure and report our final decision as to whether the unit is used metaphorically in the context of the article, **step 4.**

It

- (a) contextual meaning: It is a pronoun, it is used as the subject of a verb, it can be used as the object or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition.

- (b) basic meaning: This pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.
- (c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Used metaphorically? No.

took

- (a) contextual meaning: It is a pronoun, it means “to move something or someone from one place to another”.
- (b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.
- (c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Used metaphorically? No.

them

- (a) contextual meaning: It is a pronoun; it is used to refer to a particular group of people or things when they have already been mentioned or when it is obvious which group you are referring to.
- (b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.
- (c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Used metaphorically? No.

ages

- (a) contextual meaning: it is a plural noun that is used to refer to a long period of time.
- (b) basic meaning: The noun does have a more basic meaning; it can mean the number of years that someone has lived somewhere, for example. “At the age of 10, I went to live with my aunt.”
- (c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that ages can refer to the number of years where someone has lived, and ages as the time period spent being a long time. Metaphorically used? Yes.

to

- (a) contextual meaning: In this context, “to” has the purely grammatical function of signalling the infinitive form of the verb. Hence, it has a very abstract and schematic “meaning.”
- (b) basic meaning: As an infinitive marker, to does not have a more basic meaning. As a
- (c) preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in There are daily flights to Boston. contextual meaning versus basic meaning: If we consider to as an infinitive marker, the contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

get

- (a) contextual meaning: is an intransitive verb that refers to moving to or from a position or place.
- (b) basic meaning: The verb get does have a more basic meaning which refers to obtain, receive, or be given something.
- (c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that get can refer to obtaining or being given something and get as moving from one position to another. Metaphorically used? Yes.

here

- (a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun that is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.
- (b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.
- (c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

In summary, only two of the five lexical units above were judged as being used metaphorically. It is worth noting that the Pragglejaz Group states that agreeing on whether a lexical unit is metaphorical is not simple. This is because some people might make different decisions and give diverse reasons for supporting the same judgements as to whether a specific word can be used metaphorically or not. However, overall, MIP provides reliable steps for researchers to use in the identification of metaphors (Pragglejaz, 2007: 13). The researcher adopts this method to identify metaphors found in textbooks and teaching materials used to teach EFL students at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training (see Appendix K.). The following sections explain these references and why they were chosen. Moreover, it discusses the type of English language these books collectively represent.

3.5.3 Classification of Metaphors

Of the metaphors identified and selected from the teaching resources, only the most frequent metaphors that appear in students' textbooks and teaching materials are used; 19 metaphorical expressions are used in the questionnaire design, five metaphorical expressions for the teaching intervention, and two metaphorical expressions for the interview. It is important to note that most of the examples used in the questionnaires, interviews and teaching intervention differ, but some examples are repeated in the reflective task to engage students in the teaching intervention. When selecting appropriate metaphorical expressions for this research, the aim was to select a small number of metaphors that can be classified on a gradient of complexity ranging from the most universal metaphors to the most complex culture-based metaphors (see questionnaire 3.6.1.2). Their complexity is governed by the classification model proposed in

Charteris-Black (2002), which was developed from Deignan et al. (1997) (for more details see section 2.2.1.7). In addition, I selected one of Deignan et al.'s (1997) classification of metaphors, which is type 1 metaphor that represents universal metaphor and two of Charteris-Black's (2002) classification of metaphors which are: a) type 3 metaphors that are linguistically similar in both L1 and the target language but conceptually different in both languages and b) type 6 metaphors that are conceptually and linguistically different in both L1 and the target language (culture-based). It is worth noting that I opted to use Deignan et al.'s (1997) type 1 metaphor because, in my opinion, it is more direct in its classification, whereas the lines are blurred in Charteris Black's (2002) classification of type 1 and type 2 metaphors that represent universal metaphors. The reason for using only the three types of metaphors identified above is because the metaphor examples extracted from the textbooks and authentic teaching material fall under only these three types.

In the questionnaire, five examples (1– 5) were chosen from type 1 (*catch, ages, tempting idea, honeymoon, upside down*). This is anticipated to be the easiest type of metaphor for students to learn since they are both linguistically and conceptually equivalent in English and their L1 (for more information see section 2.2.1.7). Another five examples (6– 10) were chosen to represent type 3 (*burst into, broken down, stuffy, night owl, shadow*). It was expected that this type would cause the participants to demonstrate reliance on their L1, since the expressions are linguistically similar. However, they were expected to encounter some difficulty in reaching the intended conceptual meaning in English since these expressions have different conceptual bases (for examples see pp.22– 3). Five examples were selected from type 6 (11– 15) (*hit the roof, Hershey Kisses, wrinkle, run- of- the- mill, flushed with embarrassment*). This type was expected

to be difficult for the English language learners due to the linguistic and conceptual differences between English and their L1. Here, the chosen metaphors have different linguistic expressions with different conceptual bases in both KA and English that are considered opaque or culture-specific (see section 2.2.1.7.).

These examples demonstrate different ways or strategies of sense-making among learners who appear to rely on their L1 or literal translation. Details of the different strategies displayed by the learners are discussed in more depth in the analysis in Chapter 4.

Furthermore, I used AlFahad (2012) who studied the Kuwaiti dialect and language and documented many metaphors and proverbs in the Kuwaiti Arabic dialect, to assess whether the metaphors chosen for the study were similar, equivalent or different between English and KA. I had a personal oral discussion with Dr Ghanima Al-Fahad via social media to discuss the conceptual meanings of some Kuwaiti metaphors when building the table of metaphors. In our discussion I explained my work and aim and presented the English metaphors I had selected and translated some to Dr Ghanima who gave some similar metaphors in KA, some of which are presented and explained in Tables A1, A2 and A3 (see Appendix E.).

3.6 Construction of Data Tools

This section details the data tools used in this study: a) background information questionnaire, b) questionnaire, c) interview, d) reflective task and e) teaching intervention. As indicated at the beginning of the chapter, pre-, post- and delayed questionnaires were distributed to all participants in the control and experimental groups. However, the interview, reflective task and teaching intervention were only administered to the experimental group.

3.6.1 Questionnaire construction

The questionnaires passed through many stages of development and refinement before the final draft was achieved, including a pilot study. A good questionnaire must address a topic of significance, otherwise the instrument may fail to stimulate interest or yield anticipated responses (Gillham, 2000: 2). A questionnaire should be relatively short and clearly related to the topic under investigation. Directions must be clear and direct to provide an opportunity for an easy and accurate flow of responses; this enables the researcher to properly classify all responses and analyse without complication. Furthermore, items must be logically graded and well-ordered throughout the survey to help the researcher organise the data analysis stage. The analysis of data is a crucial step that must be carefully pre-planned to ensure all responses are easy to interpret, analyse and tabulate, otherwise the processor will struggle to arrive at valid and reliable conclusions (Gillham, 2000: 2).

Given the aforementioned considerations, the researcher concurs with others who believe that a questionnaire is one of the best methods to use in this type of study for the following reasons:

1. A questionnaire is a strong instrument that will provide information relevant to both metaphor sense-making and awareness, and it has been used in many previous studies (Littlemore, 2013; Charteris-Black, 2002).
2. There are advantages to using an open-ended questionnaire; it does not restrict participants' answers and allows participants to explain freely. Thus, it gives the researcher further insights, allowing them to probe for more in-depth responses.

3. Successful questionnaires are straightforward, easy to complete and not time-consuming.
4. Regarding time and simplistic data analysis, a questionnaire gives the researcher the opportunity to use the same questions repeatedly; thus, it is time-efficient compared with alternatives, such as non-structured questionnaires or interviews.

Open-ended questionnaires have some disadvantages regarding unrestricted items; here, the researcher might open the door to problematic implications and irrelevance (Best, 1977: 158; Gillham, 2000: 5). Best (1977) argues that open-ended questions are beneficial because they encourage a greater depth of responses and may reveal participants' reasons behind their perspectives. However, for the same reason, and since it may necessitate extra effort by the participant, responses to such questions can prove meagre or vague and, therefore, be difficult to interpret. Considering these difficulties, a pilot questionnaire was designed to test the clarity of questions and the time required to complete the form. The following subsection discusses the pilot study, while subsequent subsections describe the design of the final questionnaire.

3.6.1.1. Pilot Study

Conducting a pilot study allows any problems with participants' understanding to be spotted and corrected, alongside resolving any data recording issues (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2010). It allows the researcher to assess the validity of the questions and the reliability of the data, which is key to obtaining reliable data in a repeatable format. To test the clarity of metaphors and their 'grammaticality', three jurors who were then PhD students at Manchester Metropolitan University, two of whom were native English speakers checked the questions and examples used and confirmed that they were clear, comprehensible and common.

Next, a group of 15 volunteer students at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, in the College of Basic Education – five advanced level English learners, and ten upper-intermediate level English learners – were given a semi-final draft of the pre-questionnaire to complete (see Appendix E). After reviewing and analysing the returned questionnaires, no major amendments were required. However, there was a need to add helpful instructions and underline intended metaphors for clarity purposes. Moreover, respondents were permitted to answer in either Arabic or English to overcome the possibility that some students might have difficulty expressing their opinions in English. Through this process, the questionnaire was brought to a final draft stage and was piloted again before fieldwork commenced. For additional assurance, five participants were asked to respond to the second draft of the questions, and no changes were required.

3.6.1.2. Questionnaire Content

The questionnaire consisted of three sections comprising 19 items, some of which were derived from previous studies on metaphor awareness and sense-making (Liu and Zhong, 1999; Charteris-Black, 2002; Toyokura, 2016), and based on the aims of the present study (see Chapter 1). From the outset, the researcher clearly stated the purpose of the study in a covering letter and provided self-explanatory instructions. The respondents were assured in a consent letter that all information supplied would be held in the strictest confidence. They were also informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any point without prejudice. The pre-questionnaire consisted of three parts: background information, a sense-making task and a cultural connotation rating

task, as detailed below. While the post- and delayed post questionnaire consisted of only the sense-making task and the cultural connotation rating task.

Part 1: Background Information Questionnaire

The Background information questionnaire had two sections; a) two multiple choice questions followed by an explanation gap for more details, and b) a writing task (comprehension task) where students were asked to write about their English language learning history and about the situations and contexts where they tend to use English. The Background information questionnaire was intended to provide insights into the participants' language history as explained earlier in section 3.4.4; data gathered from this section are used to correlate their answers in the pre-post-delayed questionnaires to assess whether the English background of participants affected their sensemaking of target metaphors (see Chapter 4).

Part 2: Sense-making of Metaphor

This section explores students' ways of making sense of the English metaphors used in this research: an explanation task. The questionnaire included 15 brief text passages or examples that included selected metaphors; each metaphor was underlined to highlight the word(s) requiring attention. The examples designed for this section were based on one metaphor type from Deignan et al. (1997) and two types from Charteris-Black (2002), which were selected based on their different levels of complexity (see 3.5.3 for details). In the first section of the questionnaire, students were asked to use English or their L1 to make sense of and explain the underlined expressions. The examples were set in a neutral context to avoid leading the respondent or hinting at the answer. The task asked the students to explain the underlined metaphor rather

than translate it, because if students were asked to translate the underlined metaphors this might force them to be true to the text, and thus produce a literal translation that lacks what they might have understood from the given context. This task ascertains whether some types of metaphors are more difficult to make sense of than others, whether the students draw from L1 cultural metaphors and expressions, and whether they are conceptually mapping the meanings in any way, especially in the pre-questionnaire (for supporting results, see section 4.4.3 in the analysis chapter).

Part 3: Cultural Association Rating Task

This part comprises four items, involving only examples of type 3 metaphorical expressions (as explained in 3.5.3). This section of the questionnaire aimed to explore students' awareness of metaphorical expressions that are considered linguistically similar in both KA and English, but which are conceptually different. It also explored whether the participants associated them with any positive or negative connotations that might lead to a conflict between English and their L1. A Likert scale was used to evaluate whether these connotations were negative or positive, following Liu and Zhong (1999: 30). Specifically, the participants were asked to rate the cultural acceptability of metaphorical expressions by indicating their answers on a 3-point Likert scale: 1 suitable; 2 not sure; and 3 unsuitable.

3.6.1.3. Why pre-, post- and delayed questionnaires?

The same examples used to design the questionnaire were presented to the students in three stages, pre-, post- and delayed 'tests'. The pre-questionnaire differed from the post one, but only in terms of the order of both the examples and the two tasks. This was done to ensure the

students did not rely entirely on their memory to complete the post-questionnaire. It should be noted that the difference between the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires was not the content, but rather the order of sections and some of the examples contained in each section; thus, the division of examples and grade level of metaphorical expression types (Type 1: metaphors that are conceptually and linguistically similar in both L1 and L2; Type 3: metaphors that are linguistically similar in both L1 and L2, but conceptually different in both languages; and Type 6: metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually different in both L1 and L2 and culture-based) in the first section was not lost in the shifting process used to create the post- and delayed post-questionnaires. Furthermore, the purpose of using a three-stage questionnaire was to analyse the answers from the pre-questionnaire in order to: first, help modify the interview questions and adapt the teaching intervention; second, to see whether the teaching intervention had any positive effect on the students' answers in the post-questionnaire compared with the group that did not have the teaching intervention; and third, to see if there was a difference in the students' sense-making strategies used between the pre- and post-questionnaires (see results in Chapter 4.). A delayed questionnaire is typically used to identify whether information that students have learned during the process of the research has been understood, internalised and adopted by the participants (Makni, 2013; Gao & Meng 2010; Turner, 2014; Lopez,2015; Saaty, 2016; Alharbi, 2017).

3.6.2 Focus Group Interviews

Semi-structured focus group interviews of approximately 45 minutes were conducted with 10 participants in two face-to-face focus groups. Each interview was audio-recorded using an iPhone

voice recorder and notes were taken. The interview consisted of five questions – three direct questions and two in the form of exercises – along with follow-up questions for clarification (see section 3.6.2.2). The overall aim of the focus groups was to reveal each participant's awareness of metaphors, and how they made sense of them in the pre-questionnaire and the interview.

Krueger and Casey (2014) argue that focus groups are beneficial for gaining access to people's thoughts about, knowledge of and attitudes towards a certain topic. Moreover, they are time- efficient. Green et al. (2003) stress the dynamic nature and uniqueness of a focus group, and generating data based on the synergy within group interaction. When members of a group interact effectively, they build debate and discussion, and more in-depth data can be gathered. Hence, the type and range of data are often deeper and richer than those obtained during one-to-one interviews (see Thomas et al., 1995).

3.6.2.1. Group size and selection of participants

According to Krueger and Casey (2014), certain steps must be followed when conducting a focus group interview: planning, recruiting, developing questions, moderating, analysing and preparing a report. They suggest that, when planning, it is important to consider the size of the focus group. Between six and eight participants is ideal, as smaller groups display greater potential. However, the number generally suggested as manageable is between six and ten participants – large enough to gain a variety of perspectives and small enough not to limit the discussion. In addition, when recruiting, it is important to consider group homogeneity, i.e. participants who share similar characteristics, such as gender, age-range, ethnicity and class background. The selection must be considered carefully to ensure group members feel comfortable and able to engage

(Kitzinger, 1994; Morgan and Krueger, 1998c; Krueger and Casey, 2014). Moreover, regardless of whether a pre-existing or newly formed group is used, the important role of the group facilitator or moderator should not be underestimated (Burrows and Kendall, 1997; Morgan and Krueger, 1998c; Krueger and Casey, 2014). Morgan and Krueger (1998c) argue that a skilful moderator, as well as being able to manage existing relationships, can create an environment in which participants who do not know each other feel relaxed and can be encouraged to engage and exchange feelings, views and ideas about an issue.

Considering the above, the focus groups for this study consisted of 21 voluntary participants: 10 students from the upper-intermediate experimental group, and 11 from the advanced experimental group. Their age range was 19–23 years, and all-female. A handout about the purpose of the interview and its length was distributed to all students prior to the pre-questionnaire to allow the researcher to arrange a convenient time and place to meet. The interview results are discussed in Chapter 4.

3.6.2.2. Focus Group Interview Tasks

First, I welcomed the participants and gave a brief introduction that included ground rules to follow in the interview (see interview guide, Appendix L.). Following this introduction, I asked all groups the following questions:

- 1- When did you start learning English, and where?
- 2- Imagine that if English language was an animal, what animal would it be? And why?
use a projection strategy)

According to Morgan and Krueger (1998a, 1998b, 1998c), it is beneficial to use different strategies when moderating a focus group, e.g. a projection strategy, role play, rating sheets etc., to engage participants in the discussion, rather than just directing questions at them. Following this advice, I used different strategies to conduct the interview through two exercises: a) Exercise 1 (Cards) and b) Exercise 2 (Rating sheets). The first exercise: a card with the same example on it, one metaphorical expression, was handed to each student. Students were asked to answer the question on the card first individually, before discussing it with the group (see Example A, below). This has been proven to reduce the influence of other people’s views and induce beneficial results (Morgan and Krueger, 1998a, 1988b, 1988c).

Example A

Example	I found two men <u>nosing</u> around my boat.
Questions	<p>1- Circle any other word you find difficult.</p> <p>3- Explain the meaning of the underlined word?</p> <p>_____</p>

Exercise 2 (Rating sheets) consisted of a slip of paper with an underlined expression that was given to each student. They were asked to rate if they found it socially acceptable to use in that context (as in the pre-questionnaire). Three ratings were written on the board “*Suitable, Not sure, Not suitable*” (see Example B). I wrote each participant’s answer on the board, then held a discussion. Follow-up questions were asked as appropriate.

Example B

“Break a leg!” shouted the stage director to his actors before the beginning of the play.		
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Suitable	Not sure	Not suitable

Finally, I concluded with a closing question; “What is the most important thing you have heard in our discussion today?” The overall aim of the focus groups was to reveal each participant’s awareness of metaphors, how they made sense of them in the pre-questionnaire and the interview.

3.6.3 Explicit Teaching Intervention

This section begins by providing a brief introduction to why explicit teaching was chosen for this study. This is followed by a brief description of the reflective task, followed by a description of the teaching intervention proposed, which was based on a combination of three approaches: a) analogical reasoning, b) conceptual metaphor mapping and c) semantic primitive analysis (for more details see Chapter 2).

3.6.3.1. *Metaphors & Explicit teaching*

While there is not just one method for teaching metaphors to L2 learners, most researchers focus on explicit instruction that requires students to interact actively with the language to understand and make sense of new metaphorical expressions (Littlemore and Low, 2006a; Low, 1988). First, Low (1988) strongly argues for the incorporation of metaphor instruction into the second language curriculum since metaphors are central to the use of language, as well as its structural

system. Moreover, Low (1988) recommends analytic discussions to identify underlying conceptual metaphors, the extent to which metaphors are used and extended, and the limits of metaphorical expressions, to compare with metaphorical structures in the students' L1 (ibid. : 141).

Research reveals that learning metaphorical language is aided by input about basic word meanings and underlying conceptual metaphors. This is combined with active interaction on the part of learners through classroom activities (Littlemore and Low, 2006a: 37) as well as consciousness-raising activities designed to focus learners' attention on metaphorical expressions in the target language (Littlemore and Low, 2006a: 197). Consequently, Littlemore and Low (2006a) recommend that teachers use "querying routines" in which learners are encouraged to ask direct questions about basic meanings and the senses of words so they can learn to cope with metaphors they encounter in new texts (ibid., : 25). For the reasons stated above, I found it most appropriate to adapt an explicit teaching method that combined three approaches: a) analogical reasoning, b) conceptual metaphor mapping and c) semantic primitive analysis to establish the teaching input (see Chapter 2). The content of the Teaching intervention is discussed in section 3.6.3.3

3.6.3.2. Reflective task

The first teaching session began with a 10-minute reflective task, which was an informal discussion in both English and KA. The task involved discussing some of the examples in the pre-questionnaire sense-making task, the reflective task is an icebreaker before the session that allows the researcher to engage, observe and take notes of the remarks and explanations given

by students. According to Barkhuizen (2018: 121), participant observation with the involvement of the researcher is beneficial, it is "where the researcher doesn't observe from a distance so as not to influence the natural action being observed, but actually becomes involved in the performance of the action".

3.6.3.3. *Content of the Teaching Intervention:*

In this section I describe the content of the teaching intervention used, which included direct instruction in metaphor, with three 45-minute classes.

The first class for all students included a PowerPoint presentation, that:

- 1- Defined metaphorical language, explained why it is important, and gave examples of metaphor with source to target domain mappings (see Appendix H).
- 2- Illustrated a list of analogical reasoning instructions to reach the meaning of the metaphor displayed.
- 3- Explained how to use semantic primitives to analyse negative or positive connotations.

This PowerPoint was used as a guide and was displayed in every teaching session to ensure everyone in the experimental groups received the same introductory information and direct instruction. Next, the three classes focused on identifying metaphors in short authentic texts (see Appendix I.). The first class included a warm-up (reflective task) where students worked in small groups to explain some metaphors used in the pre-test. This provided the researcher with some insights into how students made sense of metaphors, the difficulties they encountered, how they reached meanings and if they drew on their L1 to interpret difficult metaphors.

During the second and third classes, the PowerPoint instruction guide was displayed. Students were given extra texts on a sheet of paper to look for metaphors and use the presentation as a guide to help them make sense of meaning. Students were first asked to look at examples separately, and follow the instructions displayed. Second, they were asked to work in groups to share and discuss their answers. Third, they shared and discussed their answers with the researcher. During the first and second steps, I observed and registered in bullet points how students made sense of metaphors. According to Barkhuizen (2018: 121), in qualitative research, when the researcher observes participants, s/he “doesn’t just observe from a distance so as not to ‘influence’ the natural action being observed, but actually becomes involved in the performance of that action”. Moreover, I was able to guide students through “querying routines” (Littlemore and Low, 2006a: 25) in which learners were encouraged to ask direct questions about basic meanings and senses of words so they could learn to cope with metaphor they encountered in new texts. Alongside providing the target or source domains of some metaphors to understand less ‘visible’ or salient expressions, it was hoped that the teaching intervention would improve students’ metaphor awareness through explicit instruction by encouraging them to identify, explain and make sense of metaphors on their own. The steps used in the teaching intervention are discussed in Appendix M. (Data collection stages).

3.7 Data Collection and Final Administration

This section explains how data were collected for this research in five main stages: a) stage one: preparation before week 1, b) stage two: Week 1, c) stage three: Week 2 teaching intervention, d) stage four: Week 4 post-questionnaire and e) stage five: delayed-post-questionnaire. The

fieldwork was conducted in October 2018 (3–29 Oct.), while the delayed-post-questionnaire was administered on 16–17 December 2018. I made repeat visits to the College of Business Studies (girls campus), which was selected for this study (see Appendix M. for data collection stages).

3.8 Data Analysis

This section explains the analysis approach adopted for each of the methodological tools, starting with the opportunities of multilingual research, followed by how I analysed Background information questionnaire data, interview data and questionnaires, ending with the steps used to analyse the results to establish discussion chapter themes.

3.8.1 Multilingual Research Opportunities

It is important to note that all quotations are in Kuwaiti Arabic and are translated into English by the researcher who is an expert user of both Arabic and English. According to Halai (2007), multilingual research is challenging because working with data in two languages doubles the workload in the case of full translations. In addition, data translation means that subtle meanings and nuances may be lost. Another challenge is the lack of appropriate multilingual data analysis software, which can slow research progress (cited in Holmes et al., 2013: 287). Nonetheless, “when the multilingual researcher fulfils a double role, as both the translator and interpreter this also brings opportunities” (Holmes et al., 2013: 287). According to Shklarov (2007), multilingual researchers mediate between different linguistic worlds, thus identifying areas of methodological concern and developing higher levels of ethical sensitivity with regard to the complexities associated with the research of such nature (Holmes et al., 2013: 287–8).

Holmes et al. (2013: 294) argue that working monolingually only tells ‘half the truth’. Hence, being able to mediate between two different linguistic worlds, Arabic and English languages, gave me the opportunity to collect and analyse my data in both languages, which helped me gain rich insights into my results by not excluding answers in students’ L1.

3.8.2 Focus group Interview data analysis

Template analysis was adopted to analyse data gathered from the interview. The interview comprised three tasks that were analysed manually. For Task 1: Warm-up exercise; which consists of two questions; answers from the first question a) “When did you start learning English, and where?” were gathered and put into different categories (see Table 6, below) ; for example, one of the students explained that she started learning English when she was seven years old, in Kuwait, in Mishref primary school, which is a state school. Her answers were categorized in the following manner:

Table 6: categorizing answers from Q.1 – Task1.

Student	When?	Where?	Private School	State School	Other
<i>U. 1</i>	<i>7 years</i>	<i>Kuwait</i>	-	<i>Mishref primary</i>	-

The second part of Task1; b) “Imagine, if English language was an animal what might it be? And why?”. Data were gathered and from the students’ answers and explanations several main themes developed (see Chapter 4). And for Task 3: Rating sheet exercise that consists of one type 3 English metaphorical expression (i.e. metaphors that are conceptually similar and different linguistically in both English and Arabic, see Chapter 1.), participants were asked to rate if they found the expression socially acceptable to use in that context. The data gathered from students’

answers were categorized into a table (see Table 7) and from the students' explanations different themes were developed (see Chapter 4). As an example, a student answered that she found the expression suitable, and something most directors use to encourage their actors, her answers were categorized as follows:

Table 7: categorizing answers from Q.1 – Task3.

Expression	<i>“Break a leg! Shouted the stage director to his actors before the beginning of the play.”</i>			
Student	Suitable	Not Sure	Not Suitable	Explanation
U.1	X	-	-	<i>most directors use to encourage their workers</i>

3.8.3 Analysis of results from the questionnaires

In this section, I discuss the data analysis used for three questionnaires (pre-, post- and delayed-post questionnaire). The section is structured as follows. First, I discuss the steps used to analyse the results of Part 1 of the questionnaire: Background Information questionnaire data analysis that includes multiple choice tasks, an explanation of their selection and a writing task; Followed by Part 2 of the questionnaire that includes open-ended responses; Concluding with Part 3 of the questionnaire which is divided into two sub-sections: Likert-scale results, and an explanation of their choices. All results included two types of analysis: a) Template analysis, b) SPSS analysis. Finally, I discuss the challenges in the data analysis.

3.8.3.1. Background Information Questionnaire data analysis

This part of the questionnaire comprised two sections: a) two multiple choice questions followed by an open-ended question requesting more details and b) a writing task where students were asked to write about their English language learning trajectory. The first two multiple questions were: 1- How often do you use English outside the English classroom? and 2- Do you think your

knowledge of English culture comes from: TV, social media, family, travel, school, other? In order to explain the results, crosstabulation in SPSS is used to calculate percentages for each group and compare the group results in every phase, in addition to thematic explanations of the results (in section 3.8.3.3). The reason for using an SPSS test hinges on the words of Siegel (Siegel and Castellan, 1988: 2) that are relevant to this study: "...in statistical inferences, we are concerned with how to draw conclusions about a large number of events on the basis of observations of a portion of them". Therefore, the statistical method used in this study is descriptive statistics to conduct an analysis of quantitative data as a primary instrument for drawing a comparison between the four groups to look for similarities and differences amongst the different levels of participants in the study, i.e. Advanced and Upper-Intermediate levels (see section 3.8.3.5).

Writing task B instructed students to: Write about how you use the English language to communicate in everyday life, consider the following: at home, at college, in restaurants, online (twitter, WhatsApp, Snap Chat etc.), or when you travel. In section 4.2., I provide a template analysis of the results and quotes from the data set to give some examples and clarifications of students' responses (see Chapter 4).

3.8.3.2. Steps used to analyse data in Part 2 of the questionnaire

To begin with, template analysis was used for Part 1 of the questionnaire to highlight the main themes found. The steps followed in the analyses process are as follows.

- 1- I manually went through each questionnaire and categorized students' answers by creating tables that consisted of open cells to list in all students' answers for the same question.

- 2- I created a table with numerous cells and placed students' answers that were similar in one cell and then another cell, and so on until I had piles of similar answers in one cell and different ones in another to compare later and analyse. For example, Student 1 from the upper-intermediate group answered Q.1 in Part 1 of the questionnaire thus 'Shahar asaal' شهر عسل' as did student 3, while student 2 gave a different answer "Qamar asal" "قمر عسل"; their answers were categorized as follows:

Table 8: Categorizing answers from Q.1 – Part 1 of the questionnaire.

Group 204/ 4							
Part1	Q.1. ...honeymoon....						
Student 1	شهر عسل						
Student 2		عسل قمر					
Student 3	شهر عسل						

- 3- After filling in the table with the answers found on the questionnaire, following Dornan, Carroll & Parboosingh's (2002) and Kent's (2000) template analysis approach, I began by looking at strategies in the data. I started to analyse the responses according to the strategies that I identified in the Literature Review (see section 2.3.2.2). The strategies formed a template that I used to analyse and categorize the answers by reading and re-reading using a strategies explanation table that included the strategies discussed in the literature as a guide. This process helped to identify which strategies were used by students in their answers (see Appendix F). The sense-making strategies that resulted from the students' answers are discussed in section 3.8.3.3
- 4- After that, I quantified the seven strategies found to identify patterns and trends to help understand the differences between the four groups. SPSS software was used for the

quantifiable results of Part 1 and Likert scales in Part 2 to statistically analyse and present the quantitative data obtained from the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires. Section 3.8.3.4 gives a brief explanation of the differences between parametric and non-parametric statistical tests, followed by the reason for choosing SPSS tests for my study. The following section discusses the strategies found in the study.

3.8.3.3. Explaining the strategies found in Part 2 of the questionnaire data

This section goes through the categories that were used to process the data found in this study. Some of the categories are based on previous studies (Charteris-Black, 2002; Littlemore, 2004) that discussed EFL students' difficulties in understanding metaphors and the strategies they use to make sense of them.

Strategy 1: Literal meaning

In literal translation, source language grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest target language equivalent, but lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. The translator tries to change the source language structure into target language structure, but the words are translated literally as a pre-translation process (Newmark, 1988: 46). For example, "...new advertising wrinkle..." was interpreted in KA as "Tajeedah leelanyah jadedah" *تجعيدة* "اعلانية جديدة", in English it means "A new wrinkled advertisement". According to Littlemore et al. (2011), students might not even realize they have misinterpreted a metaphorical expression. This is particularly true if the students are unaware that an expression is being used figuratively at all and instead try to interpret it literally. Students applied a literal interpretation to a metaphorical expression without realizing the conceptual meaning.

Strategy 2: Word-for-word meaning

Some students gave a word-for-word meaning to interpret metaphors. According to Newmark (1988: 45), word-for word translation is used as a pre-translation process, especially for a difficult text. The translator keeps the source language's word order and uses common equivalent words to express the meaning of the source language. This strategy was found in students' answers; for example, "...new advertising wrinkle..." was interpreted in Kuwaiti Arabic as "leelan jaded betajeedah" "اعلان جديد بتجعيدة"; in English it means "A new Advertisement with a wrinkle". This happens when students try to apply word-for-word translation from English to Arabic to a metaphorical expression without realising the conceptual meaning. It is important to note that the difference between Strategy 2 and Strategy 1 is more obvious when it involves a long stretch of words – for example in a long sentence rather than one lexical item or a compound.

Strategy 3: Contextual meaning

Another strategy used by students to interpret metaphors by providing a general meaning instead of a conceptual or literal, word-for-word translation of the metaphorical expression derived from the context in which the metaphor expression was placed. For example, when students were asked to interpret the underlined word in the following sentence "...I sensed a shadow of disappointment in my father's expression when he read the bank letter", some students gave this explanation in KA: "Risalat il bank mohbitah" "رسالة البنك محبطة"; which means in English: "The bank's letter is disappointing." In this strategy, the students missed the conceptual meaning and provided a general meaning for the metaphorical expression. This strategy can be linked to the graded salience hypothesis, which is when students interpret

unfamiliar metaphors and they initially activate literal meanings, as these are salient, and then try to process the contextual meaning, as explained in Littlemore (2004a: 68). Pleg et al. (2001) argue that two mechanisms work together when students are interpreting metaphors: a) a linguistic processor triggers the immediate activation of salient word production; and b) a contextual processor independently shapes the overall message (as cited in Littlemore, 2004: 68), as seen in this strategy.

Strategy 4: Guessing

In this category students simply write a word or an expression that contains an irrelevant guess at the meaning of the metaphor they encounter. This might happen when they do not understand the underlined metaphor. Littlemore (2004a) explains that she omits students' answers that are irrelevant to the meaning of the metaphors she uses. However, as I am exploring how students make sense of different types of metaphors, I opted to group all the irrelevant guessed answers into one category and see when students use this type of category and try to explain why that might happen. For example, some students interpreted the metaphorical expression "...catch my flight" as "mataar" "مطار", which means in English: airport, they probably wrote down the word they understood in English.

Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning

Here, students directly give the conceptual meaning of the target metaphor. In the example, "...catch my flight" "الحق على الطائرة", in English it means "to get on the plane/airport on time".

Strategy 6: Metaphor for a Metaphor

Students produce metaphors in their L1 that have the same conceptual basis as the English metaphorical expressions provided. This is identified in Charteris-Black (2002) as type 4 (for more information see Chapter 2). For example, “...upside down” was explained in KA as “Rasan Alaa Aqib” “رأساً على عقب” and an equivalent English linguistic expression would be “he turned head over heels”, the English conceptual expression would be “upside down”.

Strategy7: L1 transfer

Here, students encounter metaphorical expressions with completely different conceptual bases from their L1 and linguistic expressions in KA, and these are opaque or culture specific. Students provide a metaphorical expression or an interpretation that is conceptually and linguistically different to the target language. For example, “Hit the roof” was interpreted in KA as “Tarat min il Farha” "طارت من الفرحه", in English “Flying from happiness”. This strategy can be linked to blending theory. If there are no obvious contextual clues to help students understand the metaphor, they simply infer a target domain by providing their own contextual clues as to the possible nature of the target domain (Littlemore, 2004).

The seven strategies found in students answers in Part 2 of the questionnaire were used as the basis for quantitatively categorising the data, the following section discusses this in more detail.

3.8.3.4. Parametric versus non-parametric statistical tests

Data analysis using SPSS can be quite straightforward; however, the selection of an appropriate test depends entirely on the decision of the researcher (Norusis, 2006). The decision to use

parametric or non-parametric statistical tests is not random. Some scholars distinguish between parametric and non-parametric tests based on the level of measurement represented by the data being analysed. Inferential statistical tests that evaluate interval data are categorised as parametric tests, whereas tests that evaluate nominal data and ordinal data are categorised as non-parametric tests (Sheskin, 2003). The interval scale of measurement is a numeric one where not only is the order of the values known, but also the exact differences/ intervals between the values (test scores are a typical example) (Dörnyei, 2007; Larson-Hall, 2010). Researchers in the field of second language and applied linguistics research such as Lowie & Seton (2012) argue that the distinction is not only made on the basis of the type of data, but also on the assumption of normality in the distribution of data. Normality in the distribution of data means that if the data are plotted, the result should be a symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, where scores with the greatest frequencies accumulate in the middle and smaller frequencies fall towards the extremes (Dörnyei, 2007). According to Dörnyei (2007), Larson-Hall (2010), Kinnear & Gray (2012) and Lowie & Seton (2012), to make an objective decision on the normality of data, it is recommended to run a test of normality. Data do not have to be perfectly normal because most procedures work well with data that are only approximately normally distributed (Dörnyei, 2007) and other procedures can work very well with non-normal data, i.e. non-parametric tests. Therefore, after I have analysed Part 2 of the questionnaire using template analysis to categorise the strategies, I identified which seven strategies occurred in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires. However, template analysis as a tool does not indicate which strategy was used most or which strategies were used dominantly by the students in different groups, nor does it highlight any changes in strategy use; for these reasons, I decided to quantify the seven strategies and fed

them into SPSS in order to analyse the data obtained from Part 2 and use parametric tests. I used cross-tabulation to compare groups and strategies and get percentages.

3.8.3.5. *Finding the right test for quantified qualitative data*

The quantified qualitative data obtained from Part 2 of the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaire cannot be categorised as interval data. Thus, the interval scale of measurement is a numeric scale, whereas the seven strategies used by the students, even if they were given numbers, such as Strategy 1, Strategy 2, Strategy 3 etc., cannot be calculated on a scale of 1 to 7. All the strategies are equal in my research, so if a student uses Strategy 1 the value of Strategy 1 on a scale is the same value as for Strategy 7. Therefore, if a student selects Strategy 1 her selection does not mean it is of low or high value on the scale. It just shows the different usages of strategies. What I need from SPSS software is for it to show me the most frequently used strategy in each group in each phase (pre-, post-, delayed post-questionnaire). Therefore, the cross-tabulation option was used to calculate the most frequently used strategies for each group and generate a percentage for each question separately. In addition, I calculated percentages for the strategies used most before and after the teaching intervention for the experimental groups, and which strategies were more dominant in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaire for each group using the cross-tabulation option. Moreover, I opted to gather the questions that fall under Type1 metaphor (1– 5) into one category (Type 1) and all the students' answers in it, this procedure was also used for Type 3 metaphor (6– 10), and Type 6 metaphor (11– 15) to determine the most frequent strategies used by students for each type, as intended in the questionnaire design, by manually calculating them and getting percentages. For example, for

Type 1 metaphor, I grouped the results for the first five questions that represent Type 1 metaphor into one category and calculated how many students in one group chose Strategy 1 for questions 1–5 that represent Type 1, and how many chose Strategy 2 and so on. The same steps were used for Type 3 and Type 6 metaphors. From the raw numbers, percentages were then calculated to compare the overall results for each group and against each other (see Chapter 4). Furthermore, I decided to use bar charts to present the results, as well as tables that include raw numbers from the data and percentages to explain my results, and SPSS software where necessary to show comparisons between groups.

3.8.3.6. Analysis of Part 3 of the questionnaire:

Likert Scale:

Multiple-choice questions included three main answers. All students' answers were fed into SPSS and cross-tabulation was used to calculate a percentage for each group and see the differences in the results for all four groups.

Explanation section:

Thematic analysis was used for this section and two main themes were developed, which were religion and culture (for more details see Chapter 4).

3.8.3.7. Challenges in the data analysis

Both the design and analysis of the questionnaire in this study were informed by Charteris-Black's (2002) classification of metaphors, and Littlemore's findings (2002, 2004, 2009). To begin with, Charteris-Black's (2002) classification of metaphors is based on complexity level (comparing the linguistic form and conceptual meanings of metaphors between English and the L1 learners),

which was used to select appropriate metaphors for the study and arrange them based on their anticipated complexity when encountered by EFL learners. However, I could not fully base my findings analysis on Charteris-Black's (2002) study because he tailored his instrument and based his questionnaire and findings on six figurative types previously developed. His data collection instrument was designed in such a way as to control the outcome; he divided his data collection tool into two:

- 1) Comprehension Task – a multiple-choice task that includes the following: (a) one correct paraphrase; (b) a primary distractor; (c) a secondary distractor; (d) an 'I don't know' (option).
- 2) Production Task – a task that included two prompts: a) a one-word prompt in brackets; b) an indication of the number of words in the correct response.

The Comprehension Task was easily analysed because of the predetermined types presented in the multiple-choice task (six figurative units used in the design of the questionnaire). The analyses of the Production Task was different – students were required to fill in a space in a paragraph with the correct answer. If students answered correctly, they were given one mark, and if there was evidence of the correct answer, they were given half a mark, "For example 'lend their hands?' for lend a hand, and 'talk sweet?' for sweet-talk were each given a half mark" (Charteris-Black, 2002: 120) to be used in a one-way ANOVA test. However, there was no indication of how incorrect answers were calculated. What systematic way can be used to identify whether an answer is correct or not, and based on what? Is it on the researcher's intuition or experience in the field? In addition, Charteris-Black's (2002) six metaphor classifications cannot all be used in the analyses of this research's data because I used an open-

ended questionnaire that resulted in a variety of strategies, and many of their answers were not metaphorical, thus they cannot fall within the six classifications. Therefore, only part of Charteris-Black's six figurative units could be used in the analysis. The purpose of open-ended questions is to allow participants more space to express their understanding of a metaphor without leading them to any possible answers if using multiple-choice answers. This aimed to reveal all possible strategies that participants use when making sense of English metaphors. When using multiple-choice answers, they may be limited to a set of responses that force them or lead them down a specific path. On the other hand, open-ended questions do not easily facilitate the systematic analysis of answers since they come in different lengths and languages (participants were asked to answer in Arabic or English). This is contrary to a multiple answers tool where there is one correct answer that the researcher uses amongst various options and counting correct answers for statistical analysis would be much easier. Thus, this leads us to the challenge of adopting a single method that provides a systematic way to analyse different strategies used by learners to make sense of metaphors based on previous research in the field. As a result, I tried to find another study or method that might help in the analysis of the strategies identified in this research, i.e. using some of the findings in Littlemore's (2002, 2004, 2009) work, which was also used in the design of the methodology (see section 3.8.3.3). Littlemore's technique in analysing each strategy by linking it to other theories in the field of metaphor comprehension provides an opportunity to categorise the variant responses found in students' answers. Littlemore's (2004) study displays differences in strategies and the wide range of theories in the field, but it does not suggest a framework that is applicable to various strategies that can be adapted in the analysis of this study. Therefore, I had to develop a template of categories that I could use to categorise

students' answers by using the strategies found in Littlemore's (2004) study, and in Charteris-Black (2002), to set out a systematic way in which to analyse the different strategies used by learners to make sense of metaphors (see 2.3.2.2). However, one of the strategies I noted in my findings (a Metaphor for a Metaphor) does not fall under any of the strategies discussed in previous research. Therefore, I had to define my finding and explain it and, having done so, I acknowledge that this type of strategy does exist in the literature but not as a strategy, it is a type of metaphor found in Charteris-Black (2002) (see Chapter 2).

3.8.4 Identifying the study's Key Findings

After finishing my results chapter, in order to discuss the results, I planned ahead to summarise each section of my results (see Chapter 4). This enables me to easily go back and forth looking for themes to discuss in my discussion chapter. Following Braun and Clark's (2006) thematic analysis approach, and guided by the research questions, I coded the summaries of each result section by 'reading' and 're-reading' the data, collating codes across all of the data into potential themes and reviewing these themes across the whole data set to identify the most salient themes and examples within them. To help me engage with my data and develop themes, during and at the end of the coding process I went back to each result's summary and wrote bullet points that included the main findings. After critically thinking about the themes identified, five main key findings emerged that answer my research questions. Based on these findings I started my discussion chapter (see Chapter 5). The study's validity and reliability are then discussed.

3.9 Validity and Reliability

3.9.1 Validity

As identified by Joppe (2000, p.1), validity refers to: “The extent to which the instrument (test, rating scale, observations schedule, or whatever) measures what it purports to measure.” To ensure the instrument for collecting data was valid (such an empirical instrument should adequately reflect the real measuring of the concept under consideration), three steps were followed:

1. After writing the last version of the questionnaire, it was presented to a number of jurors.

This step was prompted by the need for a more objective perspective, considering that the researcher may occasionally be too close to recognise potential flaws in his/her tools (Mouly, 1978: 191). The questionnaire instrument was reviewed by three jurors, who were then PhD students at Manchester Metropolitan University, two of whom were native English speakers. Individual discussions were conducted with this group to evaluate the questionnaire in terms of format, ambiguity of terms, sequence of items, grouping arrangements and content accuracy. Some amendments and modifications were made based on their comments.

2. Each section’s heading, which consisted of instructions, was translated from English into Arabic and vice versa. Indeed, this is one of the crucial issues in a cross- cultural methodology. Bulmer and Warwick (1983: 152) argue that ‘back translation’ is necessary to ensure the first translation (from English to Arabic) does not contain semantic errors

that may not be detected without a comparison. This back translation was only applied to the instructions and not to English metaphors, since translating them into Arabic might jeopardise the study by giving away the meaning in some examples.

A pilot study was conducted to discover possible flaws in the questionnaire, including the wording of questions or instructions. According to Mouly (1978: 191), there is a need for a pilot study in which people who complete the questionnaire are asked to react to every phase of its organisation. Hence, a group of 15 volunteer students at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, in the College of Basic Education, five advanced level English learners and 10 upper-intermediate level English learners, were asked to complete the semi-final draft of the pre-questionnaire. After reviewing and analysing the returned questionnaires, no major amendments were required. Through this process, the questionnaire was progressed to a final draft stage and piloted again before the fieldwork commenced. At this point, five participants were asked to respond to the questions and no changes were required.

3.9.2 Reliability

A measurement is reliable if it does not change when the concept being measured remains constant (Joppe, 2000: 1). Du Vaus (1986: 46) states two aspects of reliability: 1) source of reliability; and 2) testing reliability. For example, reliability may be jeopardised when a question is expressed using bad wording. Therefore, to ensure source reliability in this current study, jurors, translators and the College of Basic Education group who took part in the preliminary stage of constructing this questionnaire were consulted for their comments and feedback to ensure efficiency and simplicity in the questions. Testing reliability is ensured by retesting. This

aspect of reliability was difficult for me to perform due to the fact that the College of Business Studies volunteers – those who were used in the pilot study – were in Kuwait while I was in the UK. Nevertheless, this step was performed and the responses of the five College of Basic Education volunteers were examined manually and compared with the first test. The results of the pilot study were reassuring; hence, I avoided any foreseen errors or inconsistencies during the data collection process. Next, I discuss the limitations of the study.

3.10 Limitations of the Study

Although the study consisted of different types of metaphors, from the most universal to the most culture-based ones, it did not cover all the different types of metaphors. The metaphors used in this study were extracted from the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training textbooks and authentic teaching materials used by some English teachers at the time of the study. The findings of this study suggest that the approaches taken by students towards metaphor sense-making vary according to the types of metaphors encountered, which suggests that using different types of metaphors from different textbooks and authentic material may result in different findings.

Finally, the extent to which metaphoric awareness can be developed using the teaching intervention described in this study should be tested on different groups of female and male students alongside various influential factors, such as learning style and context. In this study the participant population comprised one group of female Kuwaiti students; if my study was repeated by another researcher, they might experience some limitations: 1) differences in individual characteristics; 2) the level of the language learners. The approach could be adapted

to males and females in a group-teaching situation of EFL learners and achieve varying degrees of success, depending on the individual characteristics of the students. According to Littlemore (2001), levels of metaphoric competence vary among language learners depending on individual characteristics that might affect the strategies used by students to interpret metaphors (as cited in Littlemore, 2002: 59- 60). Therefore, gender might be an issue worth exploring. The following section discusses the findings and results of this study.

Chapter 4. Findings & Results

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is present the study's key findings and results in order to explore what strategies do Kuwaiti EFL learners use to make sense of different types of metaphors, especially culture-based ones. Furthermore, how do Kuwaiti EFL learners attach cultural associations to metaphors. In addition, to exploring to what extent can the teaching intervention enhance the learning of different types of metaphors. The study utilises both qualitative and quantitative approaches to address the research questions (see Chapter 1). The findings are presented in the same order in which the research tools were used (see Chapter 3), which are as follows:

1. Background information questionnaire
2. Focus group interviews
3. Questionnaires (pre-, post- and delayed)

In addition, the data analysed in this chapter aim to identify the impact of language proficiency on how the participants make sense of different metaphors and how they respond to the teaching intervention. That is done through highlighting similarities and differences between two proficiency groups: upper-intermediate and advanced English language learners (for an explanation of how these language levels were determined, refer to section 3.4.3). As explained in the methodology chapter (section 3.8.3), I analysed the qualitative data obtained through open-ended background information questionnaires and focus group interviews using template

analysis. As for the quantitative data obtained through multiple-choice options in the background questionnaires, as well as the pre-, post- and delayed questionnaires, I use descriptive statistics to identify trends and changes in scores due to the teaching intervention (see Chapter 3).

The following section begins by introducing a chronological data analysis map of the results (see Fig. 2), followed by the background Information questionnaires and the results of the focus groups interviews, and conclude with the results of the questionnaires.

Before discussing the results, it is important to establish an understanding of the abbreviations used in the following tables throughout this chapter, for example:

S.1 = Strategy1: Literal meaning

S.2 = Strategy 2: Word-for-word meaning

S.3 = Strategy 3: Contextual meaning

S.4 = Strategy 4: Guessing meaning

S.5 = Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning

S.6 = Strategy 6: Metaphor for metaphor

S.7 = Strategy 7: L1 transfer

C.U. = Control Upper-intermediate group

C.A. = Control Advanced group

E.U. = Experimental Upper-intermediate group

E.A. = Experimental Advanced group

U. = Upper-intermediate group

A. = Advanced group

St. = Student

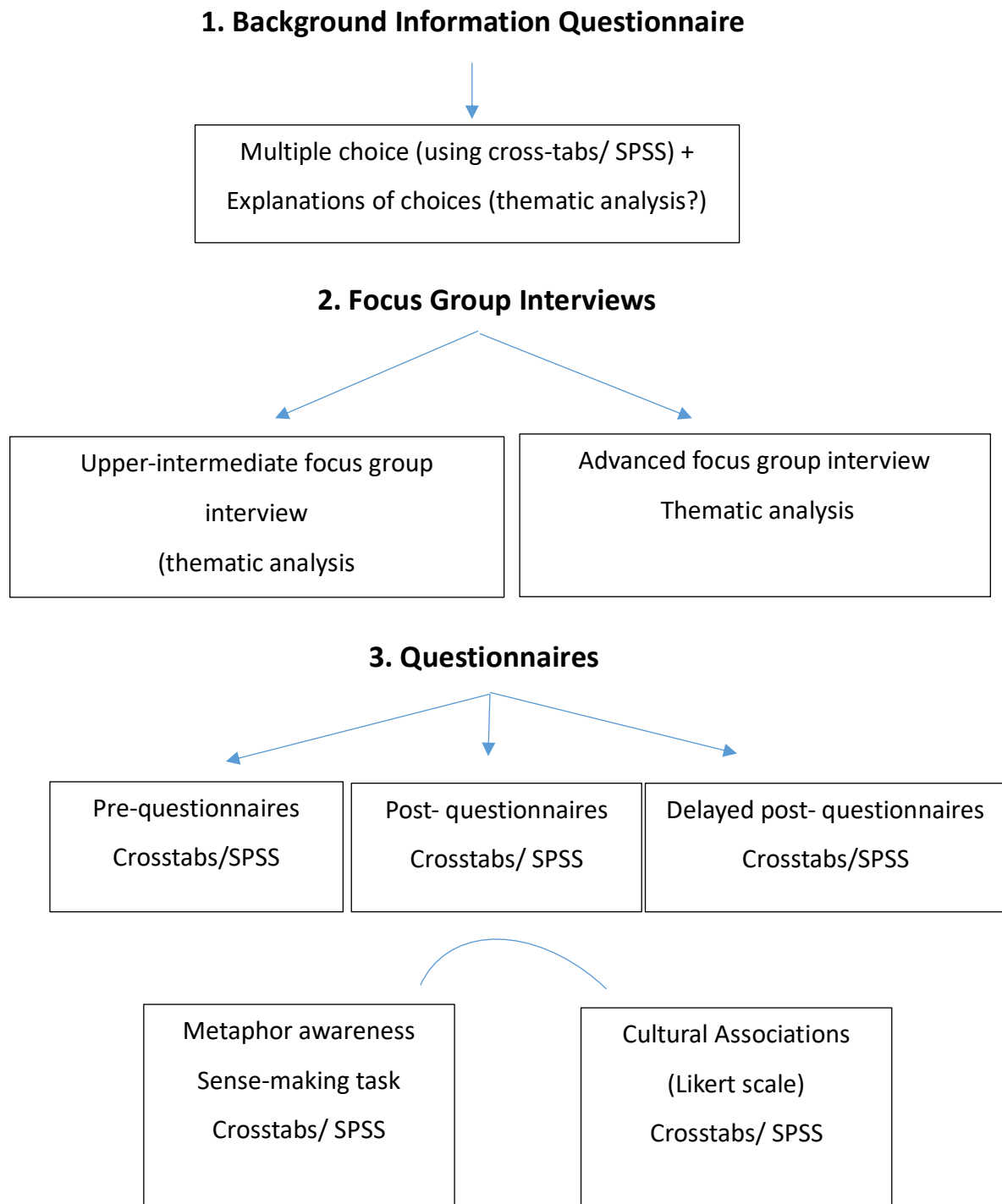


Figure 2: Map of Results

4.2 Background Information Questionnaire

All the Kuwaiti learners of English participating in the control groups and experimental groups were asked to complete a background information questionnaire. The background information questionnaire mainly investigates how much English language they use in their life. For example, it looks at how often they use English outside the English classroom, where their knowledge of English culture comes from and how they use English to communicate in everyday life; in addition, a brief demographical data section on each participant was included, e.g. age and English course level (see Appendix G for a copy of the background information questionnaire). The main purpose of this survey was to explore whether additional exposure to English language and culture outside the English classroom could influence learners' sense-making of different English metaphors.

In the following section, I discuss the results of each question based on how they were listed in the background information questionnaire to provide a readable and engaging narrative. The participants in this research are Public Authority for Applied Education and Training learners of English from the College of Business Studies. In this chapter, I would like to discuss some elements of this study that should lead us to rethink facets of metaphorical student awareness, at least as far as Kuwaiti learners of English are concerned. As Turner notes from her study:

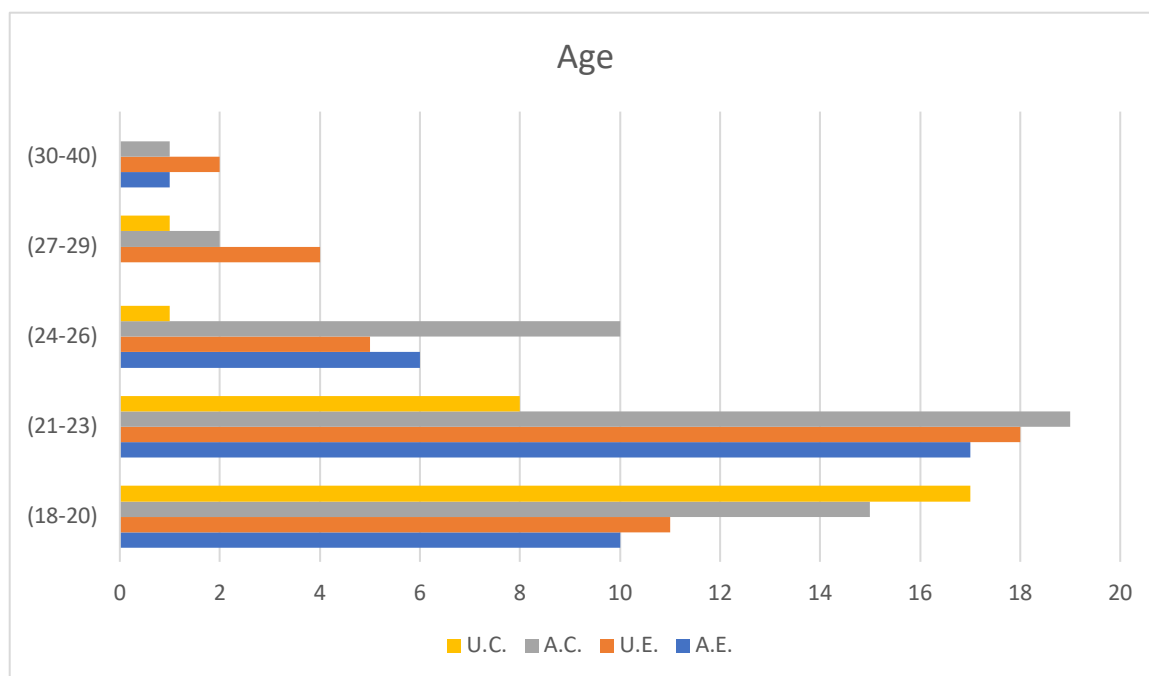
There seem to be noticeable overall differences according to language background, suggesting that a learner's native language and the sociocultural and educational background in which their learning takes place are likely to impact upon their use of metaphor.

(2014: 344)

Therefore, I will provide more background information about the participants in this study. This will assist me in exploring my theoretical stance, where I have discussed how, in the literature, some researchers believe that EFL learners need to be exposed to English culture to understand metaphors, and others believe that by L2 explicit instruction in English language classrooms teachers can use different techniques to raise EFL learners' awareness of different English metaphors, especially culture- based ones. The aim of the background information questionnaire was to explore how much English Kuwaiti EFL learners use in their everyday life, and whether they are exposed to English language and culture outside the classroom environment. The participants of this study were all native Kuwaiti EFL Public Authority for Applied Education and Training students from the College of Business Studies studying English language as a compulsory subject for five continuous courses. The target participants were Upper-intermediate and Advance level students of English. Thus, they had all studied roughly similar English subjects (English 099 – 101) and an English Placement test, and it is these aspects I will discuss. The participants, like the majority of Kuwaiti EFL students at The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, had taken an English Placement Test when they entered the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training and two intensive courses, English for beginners (099) and English for intermediate level (101), before majoring in any field at The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training. After students have been streamed into different colleges at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, there is no overall high stakes testing of English, with graduation being dependent on credits and requirements unique to each college. This creates a situation quite different from Kuwait University, where

graduation from Kuwait University in degrees related to language would require some demonstration of proficiency.

With increasing globalization and internationalization, this has led to a number of different proposals from the Ministry of Education to raise students' awareness of the English language. The most recent proposal was implemented, with English classes being conducted from kindergarten level 1 until graduation from secondary school. As shown in Table 9, most students in this experiment, who were between the ages of 18– 25, had studied English at school for 12 years, with English being taught from Primary school level 1. Students in this experiment whose ages range from 30- 40 had learnt English for 8 years due to the old system, where English was introduced in year 1 Elementary school. Nowadays, students learn English from Kindergarten level 1 in Kuwait, which means they will learn English for 14 years (please see Bar Chart 1 and Table 9 to see the age range of participants). Despite this pressure, and the long years of learning English, the English Placement Test used at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training for Kuwaiti learners reveal underperformance in English language (Alotaibi *et al.*, 2014: 441). Nonetheless, to tie this to the research questions in Chapter 2, we can see that Kuwaiti learners have exposure to English through schooling (see Table 11).



Bar Chart 1: Age range results for all groups

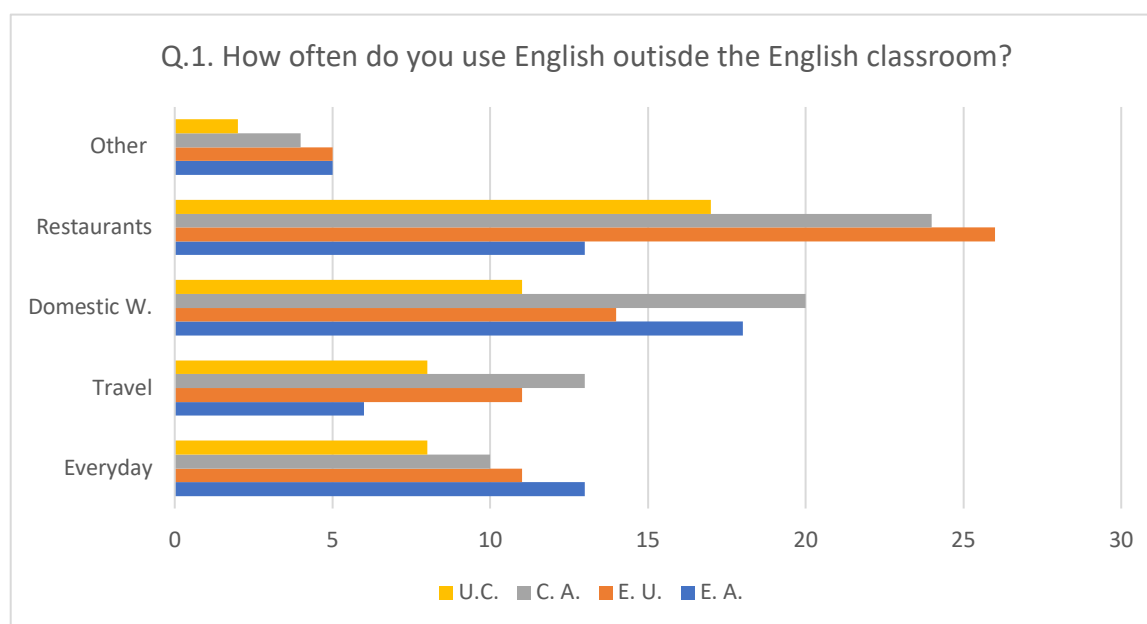
Table 9: Age range results for all groups

Age		(18-20)	(21-23)	(24-26)	(27-29)	(30-40)
C.U. Total No. of students 36	Raw numbers	17	8	1	1	0
	Percentages	63%	29%	4%	4%	0%
C.A. Total No. of students 39	Raw numbers	15	19	10	2	1
	Percentages	32%	41%	21%	4%	2%
E.U. Total No. of Students 38	Raw numbers	11	18	5	4	2
	Percentages	27%	45%	13%	10%	5%
E.A. Total No. of students 39	Raw numbers	10	17	6	0	1
	Percentages	29%	50%	18%	0%	3%

4.2.1 Section A: 1- How often do you use English outside the English classroom?

The purpose of this question is to get insights into how frequently students use English in their everyday life outside the English classroom, the tables below show each group's answers. In response to the question about how often participants use English outside the English

classroom, all four groups gave similar responses. Answers from all the groups combined show that 18% of students chose that they use English every day; 16% of students explained that they use English when they travel to English- speaking countries; 26% of students chose that they speak to domestic workers in English outside the classroom environment; 33% of students chose using English in restaurants; and 7% of students gave other answers, such as using English when they go to private hospitals or clinics in Kuwait, or using English on social media (see Table 10 for each groups response).



Bar Chart 2: Results of background information questionnaire, Q1.

Table 10: Results of background information questionnaire, Q.1.

How often do you use English outside the English classroom?		Everyday	Travel	Domestic W.	Restaurants	Other
C.U. Total No. of students 36	Raw numbers	8	8	11	17	2
	Percentages	18%	17%	24%	37%	4%
C.A. Total No. of students 39	Raw numbers	10	13	20	24	4
	Percentages	14%	18%	28%	34%	6%

E.U. Total No. of Students 38	Raw numbers	11	11	14	26	5
	Percentages	16%	16%	21%	39%	8%
E.A. Total No. of students 39	Raw numbers	13	6	18	13	5
	Percentages	23%	11%	33%	24%	9%
All groups Total No. of students 152	Raw numbers	42	38	63	80	16
	Percentages	18%	16%	26%	33%	7%

From the responses in Bar Chart 2 & Table 10 above, it is noted that the majority of responses fall between two important factors that encourage the participants to use English outside the English classroom: in restaurants and communication with domestic workers. The open-ended section of the survey equally featured the role of communication with non-Arabic speaking staff in restaurants and with domestic workers, as I explain in the next section.

4.2.1.1. *Restaurants and domestic workers in Kuwait*

The majority of the groups explained that they usually use English in restaurants and with domestic workers (see Table 10). That is because there are many international workers who mostly speak English as a lingua franca. Most of these workers are from countries such as the Philippines, India etc. Therefore, the participants resort to using English to communicate with non-Arabic speaking workers in Kuwait. It seems that going to eat in a restaurant and interacting with international domestic workers in Kuwait plays a role in promoting the use of English outside the classroom environment. This is evident from some students' answers. The following quotations from two students in the advanced control group and the upper-intermediate experimental group are representative of the views expressed by these groups on the use of English in restaurants. It is important to note that all quotations are in Kuwaiti Arabic and are translated into English by the researcher who is an expert user of both Arabic and English:

I usually go out every weekend with friends and family and we eat in different restaurants, I order in English because the waiters don't speak Arabic. [St. 33. C. A.]

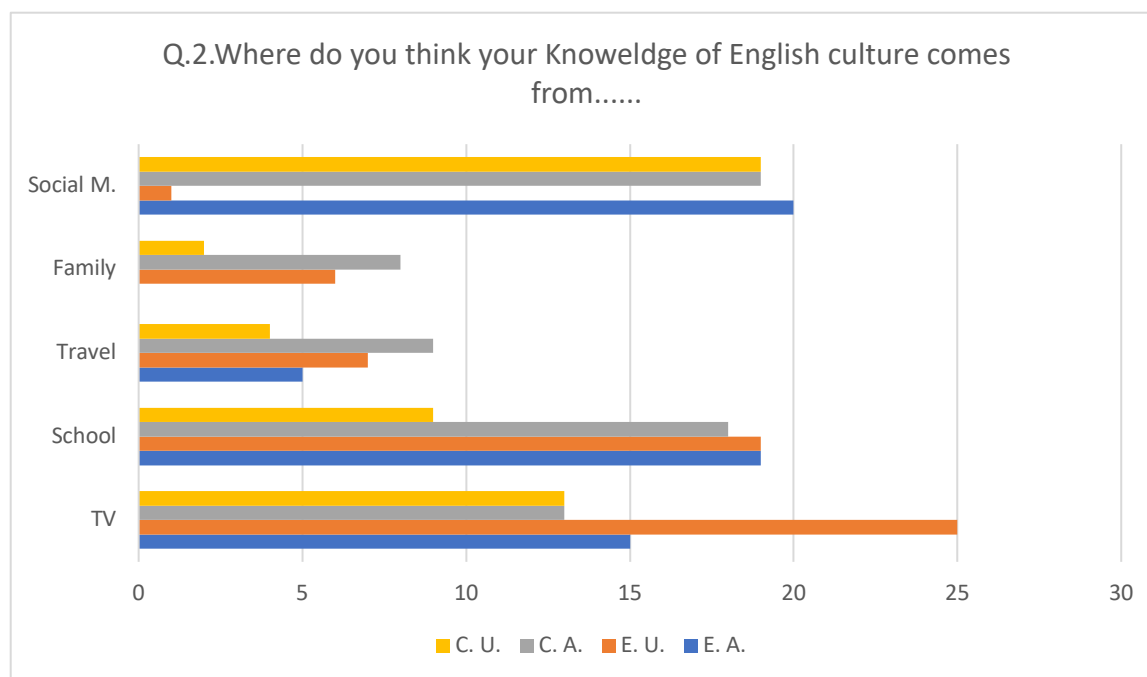
I have to speak in English at home with our domestic worker, she doesn't speak Arabic. [St. 11. E. U.]

Thus, it is important to note that the population of non-nationals (2.0 million) is double that of Kuwaiti citizens (1.0 million), which in return means that the possibility of interacting with an international worker is high, whether in restaurants, in colleges, at home, in shops or in different working departments in Kuwait (World Population Review). This factor is discussed thoroughly in the context section (see Chapter 3).

4.2.2 Section A: 2- Where do you think your knowledge of English culture comes from?

The questionnaire included a multiple-choice question asking the participants to identify their sources of English cultural knowledge. It asked: *'Learning English allows you to learn about English culture, do you think your knowledge of English culture comes from TV, social media, travel, school, other?* The purpose of this question is to explore students' exposure to English culture. The reason for mentioning family members as an option in the multiple- choice question is to see whether some students have a native English- speaking parent. If so, those participants were removed from the study because their knowledge of English culture is expected to differ from the average EFL Kuwaiti learner (for details about participant recruitment criteria, see section 3.4). In response to the second question about where the participants think their

knowledge of English culture comes from, the responses from all the students who answered the background information questionnaire, all groups combined, are as follows: 28% of students chose that they get knowledge of English culture from TV, 25% students explained that they get knowledge of English culture from social media. 7% students chose family members as their source of knowledge of English culture, 10% students chose travelling to English speaking countries as their source of knowledge of English culture, 27% students chose school education as their source of knowledge of English culture and 3% students gave other answers, e.g. teaching their siblings or children English and being exposed to private school English book materials.



Bar Chart 3: Results of background information questionnaire Q.2.

Table 11: Results of background information questionnaire Q.2.

2. Where do you think your knowledge of English culture comes from...		TV	Social media	family	Travel	School	Other
C.U. Total No. of students 36	Raw numbers	13	19	2	4	9	0
	Percentages	28%	40%	4%	9%	19%	0%
C.A. Total No. of students 39	Raw numbers	13	19	8	9	18	3

E.U. Total No. of Students 38	Percentages	19%	27%	11%	13%	26%	4%
	Raw numbers	25	1	6	7	19	3
E.A. Total No. of students 39	Percentages	41%	2%	10%	11%	31%	5%
	Raw numbers	15	20	0	5	19	1
All groups Total No. of students 152	Percentages	25%	33%	0%	8%	32%	2%
	Raw numbers	66	59	16	25	65	4
	Percentages	28%	25%	7%	10%	27%	3%

From the responses in Bar Chart3 and Table11 above, we can notice that the majority of responses fall into three important sources of cultural knowledge: TV, social media, and school. I explore these three sources in the next section based on students' responses in the open-ended section of the background information questionnaire.

4.2.2.1. *TV, social media and Schools in Kuwait*

Most participants from the advanced level groups, and most of the participants from the upper-intermediate level, explained that they think their knowledge of English culture comes from TV. Whereas the advanced groups and the upper-intermediate groups believe it comes from social media (see Table 11). This result stresses the role of media (TV and social media) in spreading knowledge of English culture around the world. For example, MBC channels are very popular in the Middle East and North Africa as they broadcast Hollywood movies and American pop culture, such channels influence both Kuwaiti society and culture, because artistic works include messages that give shape and structure to society. Thus, media can spread cultural knowledge and artistic works around the globe. In addition to the role of exposure to films, music and festivals through TV programmes, the majority of Kuwaiti EFL learners use social media. This has been significantly facilitated by the government funding a scheme for college students who

receive monthly financial support to aid them with the cost of their studies (to commute to college, buy books and laptops etc.). Due to the world of social media, students opt for smartphones or iPads, rather than buying a laptop to easily connect to the digital world. English as an international language allows people to follow different famous people around the globe on YouTube, Instagram, Twitter or Facebook, thus it is expected that this online exposure has opened the door to learning more about English culture. The following quotations from two students in the experimental advanced level group and the control upper-intermediate level group are representative of the views expressed by these groups, showing how TV and social media promote their knowledge of English culture:

I like to follow a blogger and she speaks English, so I have to translate and learn English to understand what she is saying. [St.4. E. A.]
I always watch English movies on TV, and I learn about their life. [St.13. C.U.]

Another source of cultural knowledge is from learning English as a school subject. As shown in Table 11, many students reported that studying English at school helped them to learn about English culture, the following quote from a student in the experimental Advanced level group represents the views expressed by these groups:

In primary school in my English class, we had a lesson about world cultures, like American and Chinese, and Arabic culture. [St. 20. E. A.]

Overall, the background information questionnaire indicated that the two key sources of cultural knowledge come from media (TV & social media) in general and school. In the following section,

I thematically present the findings of the open-ended section of the background information questionnaire.

4.2.3 Section B: How do you use the English language to communicate in everyday life?

The question in this section was framed as follows: *Write about how you use the English language to communicate in everyday life, consider the following: at home, at college, in restaurants, online (twitter, WhatsApp, Snap Chat etc.) or when you travel.* The findings of this writing task offer insights into the participants' language history as they reveal the use of English language in the participants' lives. It seems obvious from most of the responses that the majority (70% of students) find English a difficult but necessary language. The following quotation represents this view:

I don't like speaking English, I am not good at it, but sometimes I have to use it when I speak to foreign workers, as they don't speak Arabic. [St.13. E. U.]

The majority explained that their main knowledge of English language and culture comes first from school (English classroom settings). English for most students is necessary because it is associated with jobs and success:

I learnt English when I was 7 in school, it is difficult, but I like it, I have to improve to get a good job as they require it. [St.4. E. A.]

However, some participants expressed great frustration in learning English and explained how they avoid using it in school (45% of students), and even when they travel (30% of students).

I don't like to speak English, no one understands what I am saying; when I travel, I let my cousins order for me or speak for me. [St. 8. E. U.]

In summary, Kuwaiti EFL learners' use of English language is mainly restricted to the classroom context. Some students reported that exposure to TV and social media has enabled them to develop some cultural knowledge in English. That said, it seems that classroom input is the most influential factor for developing cultural knowledge.

4.2.4 Conclusion

In short, this section has reported details of the background information questionnaire which was used to explore the participants' exposure to English in their everyday lives. The findings suggest the prominent role played by media (TV, social media), schools and international workers in Kuwait. While these factors help to raise awareness of English as a language and the cultural package that comes with it, participants' exposure to English in out-of-class contexts remains rather limited. It is also noted that the kind of English that the participants are exposed to is lingua franca English, which facilitates communication between individuals who do not share the same L1. As I explained in the literature review (see section 2.4.2), this lingua franca variety is characterised by certain features that are different from 'native' varieties of English. One of these features is the avoidance of metaphoric expressions and collocations. As such, it can be argued that the participants continue to have limited exposure to English metaphors. In the next section, I present the findings from the focus group interviews.

4.3 Findings 2: Focus Group Interviews

This section discusses the data findings from two Focus Group Interviews: The Experimental Upper- Intermediate group and Experimental Advanced group. The overall aim of the focus group interviews was to discuss with the research participants how they make sense of different types of metaphors. In particular, the interviews were useful for eliciting responses on how students make sense of Type 6 metaphors (culture- based metaphors) and Type 3 metaphors (metaphors that are similar conceptually and different linguistically in both English and Arabic), as they offered an opportunity to ask the students about how they understand these metaphors and how they may be related to similar or different metaphoric expressions in their L1. For a discussion of the different types of metaphors, see Chapter 2.

The following discussion is structured and based on the questions and tasks used in the focus group interviews. The first part of the interview includes Task 1: Warm-up exercise, which consists of two questions: a) “When did you start learning English, and where?”, the aim of this question being to familiarize the group participants with each other and allow the researcher to gather the learners’ English history, thus exploring how much they use English in their lives. The second question b) “Imagine, if English language was an animal what might it be? And why?” is a metaphorical question and was intended to break the ice and allow students to feel comfortable to participate and understand how English as a language is perceived by students. It was also a way to encourage them to think metaphorically.

The second part of the analysis includes Task 2: Explain what is written on the card? (Interpretation exercise), which consists of one culture-based metaphorical expression: “I found

two men *nosing* around my boat.” The purpose of this task is to see how students talk about and make sense of culture-based metaphors.

The third part of the analysis includes Task3: Rating sheet exercise, which consists of one Type 3 English metaphorical expression (i.e. metaphors that are conceptually similar and different linguistically in both English and Arabic, see Chapter1) and the participants were asked to rate if they found the following expression “*Break a leg! Shouted the stage director to his actors before the beginning of the play*” socially acceptable to use in that context. The aim of this task was to see whether Kuwaiti EFL learners attach cultural associations from their L1 knowledge and culture to their understanding of L2 expressions.

The interview was closing with a concluding question: “What is the most important thing you have heard in our discussion today?” The aim of this question was to gain feedback and reflections on the discussion about metaphors, a topic the participants do not engage with often. Figure 3 summarises the tasks involved in the group interviews.

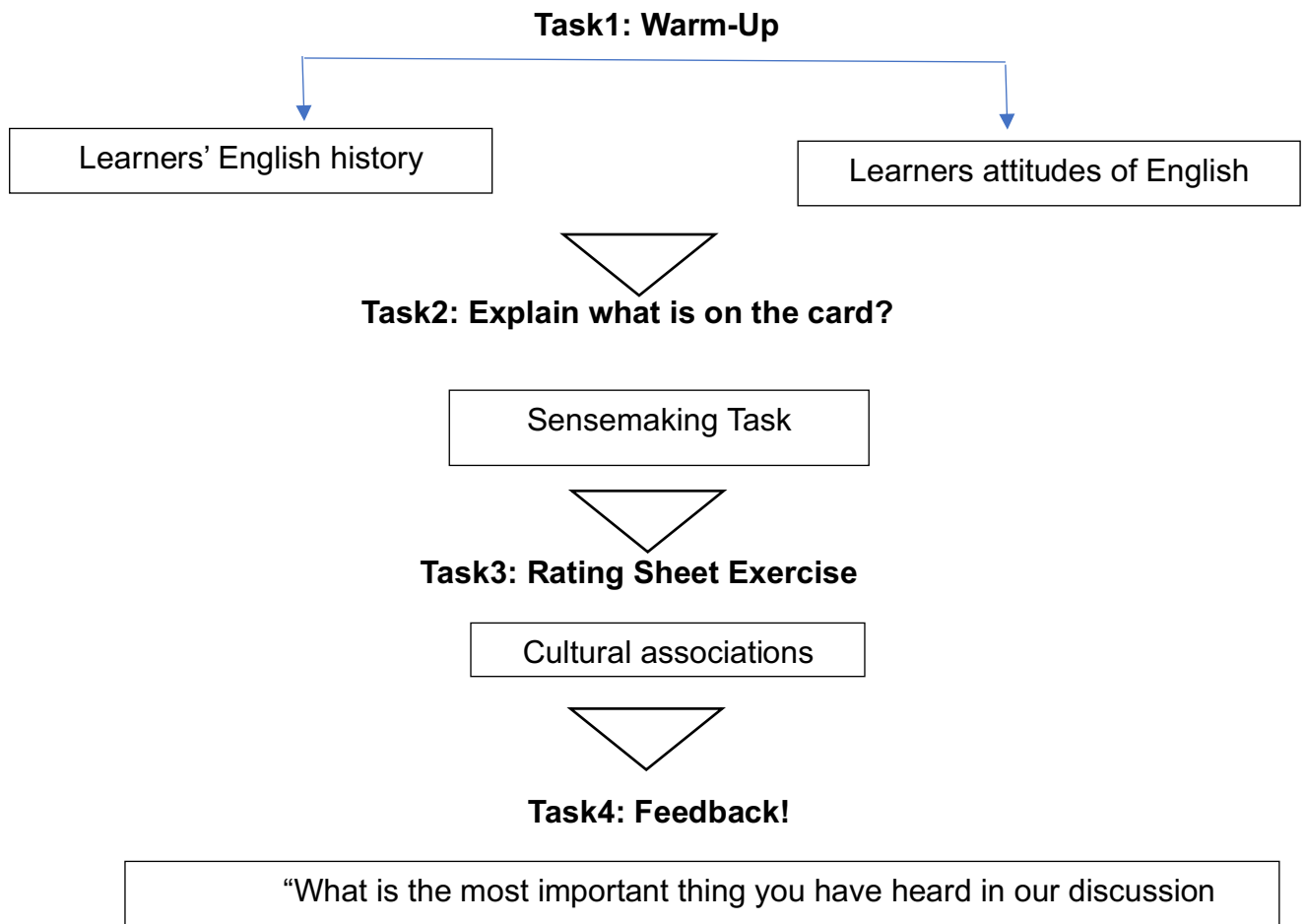


Figure 3: Data Analysis Map of the Process Used in Conducting Both Focus Group Interviews

4.3.1 Task 1: Warm-up Exercise

This exercise consists of two questions: A and B, as shown below. The results of both Focus groups, 1 and 2, with respect to these two questions are compared and discussed below, respectively.

4.3.1.1. A: *“What is your name, and when did you start learning English, and where?”*

The aim of this question, as mentioned earlier, is to familiarize the group participants with each other and allow the researcher to gather the learners’ English history, thus exploring how much they use English in their lives. Focus group 1 includes ten Upper- Intermediate level students of English (course 154), 86% of them studied in state schools in Kuwait and 14% studied in private bilingual schools. Focus group 2 Advanced level (course 204) has eleven students, 54% of the students studied in state schools in Kuwait and 45% studied in private bilingual schools. Hence, the majority of students in both groups (86% of Upper-Intermediate level & 54% of Advanced level) studied in state schools where English is taught as a foreign language subject. On the other hand, only 14% of Upper-Intermediate level and 45% of Advanced level students studied in private bilingual schools where English is not only taught as a subject but is a medium of instruction for core subjects such as mathematics and science. This means that students in private schools use more English than those in state schools. However, none of the students studied in a British Kuwaiti school or an American school where Arabic is only a language subject, and English is almost a second language for most students, if not their first language. This, in return, implies that most students in both focus groups do not use English in their everyday life as frequently as they use their Arabic language, making their chances of encountering or dealing with culture-based metaphor rather slim.

4.3.1.2. B. *“Imagine, if English language was an animal what might it be? And why?”*

The purpose of this task is threefold: first, to break the ice and allow students to feel more comfortable in order to participate effectively; second, to understand how English as a language

is perceived by students; and third, to encourage them to come up with metaphors in English. This question revealed many interesting responses which are listed in Tables 12 & 13 for both interview groups. Each table consists of the names of animals, and reasons for selection. Similar choices are gathered in one box with different explanations. It is important to note here that all explanations were given in Arabic by students and translated into English by me:

Table 12: Focus Group 1_ Upper- Intermediate Level_ Ice- Breaker Task

Upper-Intermediate Level Focus Group	
Animal	Reason for selection
Owl	"Like an owl, English language stands for wisdom & knowledge!" [St.2. U.]
Lion	"Like a lion, needed in difficult times." [St.3. U.] "Lion, because English language is strong." [St.9. U.]
Donkey	"A donkey! It has no reason in life." [St.4. U.] "A donkey, why have it?! I don't know why we should learn English." [St.7. U.]
Turtle	"A turtle! it has a hard shell that hides something inside. English is difficult to use and learn." [St.6. U.]
Cockroach	"I hate it, like cockroaches, it's scary." [St.8. U.]
Bird	"A bird is common; everyone can express themselves in English." [St.1. U.] "A bird is everywhere, and people need English to express themselves everywhere." [St.5. U.].
Bees	"Like bees, English looks good, and is beneficial." [St.10. U.]

Table 13: Focus Group 2_ Advanced Level _ Ice- Breaker Task

Advanced Level Focus Group	
Animal	Reason for selection
Dog	"A dog! I don't like it, it's my life's dilemma!" [St. 1. A.]
Lion	"A Lion! Scary. I'm just scared if you ask me anything in English, I just can't reply." [St. 2. A.] "Lion is the King of Beasts, and English is the world's most powerful language, you have to learn it." [St. 8. A.]
Panda	"Most loved, I love the English language." [St. 3. A.]

Monkey	"Smart/energetic, moves from one place to another, I can use English everywhere." [St. 4. A.]
Cat	"I love cats, yet I fear them! I love English but I'm afraid of it." [St. 5. A.]
Rabbit	"Eats everything, doesn't leave anything. English is nice." [St. 6. A.]
Crocodile	"Crocodile! I hate them, it is scary. English is scary, I hate it." [St. 7. A.]
Bird	"Small, travels everywhere. English has spread everywhere." [St. 9. A.] "English is a canary bird, I love how it sounds, but I don't understand it!" [St. 11. A.]
Cow	"Something important, it's beneficial and I can use it every day!" [St. 10. A.]

The responses in Tables 12 and 13 represent two themes: a) positive attitudes towards learning English language, b) negative attitudes toward learning English language. On the one hand, 56% of the students from the Upper-Intermediate level and 58% of the advanced level students showed a positive attitude towards English language learning in general. On the other hand, 44% of Upper-Intermediate students' and 42% of Advanced level students' responses were negative. These themes are discussed in detail below with extracts to show students' views and attitudes towards English language.

4.3.1.3. *Positive attitudes towards English Language*

Students' attitudes towards the English language are articulated based on the type of animal selected. Such a selection represents some characteristics of how participants perceived the English language. I begin by providing answers from the Upper- Intermediate level focus group followed by the advanced level focus group.

Upper-Intermediate level focus group

The upper-intermediate group showed positive views; English was imagined as an owl, the source of wisdom & knowledge, which is not a response expected from an Arabic student because the owl is culturally perceived as an omen of bad luck in the participants' L1 culture. When student

2 was asked why she chose an owl in particular, her explanation reflected her knowledge of English culture, as she said:

“Owls are a source of knowledge and wisdom in English language.” [St.2. U.]

Her answer could reflect that she had more exposure to English culture than her peers, Student 2 studied in a private school in Kuwait and said she understood the difference in how the word “Owl” has a positive connotation in English and a negative connotation in Arabic in the discussion. There were many positive answers that students gave, and they provided different reasons for their answers (see Table 12).

Advanced level focus group

From the positive views in the advanced group, English was imagined as a lion, the king of beasts, and English was in return seen as having the same power and strength as a lion and being the most powerful language in the world. When student 8 was asked why she chose a lion in particular she explained:

“Lion is the king of beasts, and English is the world’s most powerful language, you have to learn it.” [St. 8. A.]

Yet her answer reflects the necessity to learn the English language due to its prosperity, and status in the world. On the other hand, Student 11 imagined English to be a canary bird:

“English is a canary bird, I love how it sounds, but I don’t understand it!” [St. 11. A.]

This student's response shows that she perceives English positively yet has difficulty in learning and acquiring English as a language. There were many positive answers that students gave and different reasons for their answers (see Table 13)

4.3.1.4. Negative attitudes towards English Language

In this section, I provide examples of students' answers that reflect their negative attitudes towards English language. It is important to note that the animals selected can be perceived positively or negatively depending on the participant's explanation. Overall, negative attitudes show that English is difficult and something they want to avoid. I begin by providing answers from the Upper- Intermediate level focus group, followed by the Advanced level focus group.

Upper-Intermediate level focus group

There were some negative views; English is imagined to be a donkey, a turtle, a cockroach. Most responses reflect students fear of these animals, thus their fear of the English language itself, for example:

"I hate it, it's like cockroaches, it's scary." [St.8. U.]

Some responses indicate that learning English language is a challenge for students, such as:

"A turtle! it has a hard shell that hides something inside. English is difficult to use and learn." [Student.6. U.]

Advanced level focus group

From the negative views found in the advanced level focus group, English was imagined to be a dog, a crocodile, a rabbit. While these animals do not necessarily reflect negative attitudes, the

explanations provided by the students reveal the value they attribute to English. Here are some examples:

“Crocodile! I hate them, it’s scary. English is scary, I hate it.” [St. 7. A.]

“A dog! I don’t like it, it’s my life’s dilemma!” [St. 1. A.]

“A lion! Scary. I’m just scared, if you ask me anything in English, I just can’t reply.” [St. 2. A.]

The animals students selected reflect their fear of learning English language and the difficulties they might have encountered while learning English.

4.3.2 Summary

To sum up, asking students to give metaphorical expressions to explain what English means to them revealed two different attitudes towards English. The views were split between positive attitudes and negative ones in both groups. Thus, it is expected that these attitudes might affect their level of engagement and responsiveness during the teaching intervention and the different stages of the questionnaires. For example, students with positive attitudes might show more interest in trying to make sense of metaphors due to their belief in the importance of English in life. Whereas students who already have negative attitudes towards English may give up easily when trying to make sense of metaphors or not put in much effort. This cannot be measured solely from the results of focus group interviews. From my perspective, I tried to build a rapport based on trust and openness in order to connect with the students and encourage them to attend my sessions and complete the questionnaires. I was aware that while I might not be able to change negative attitudes towards English during my short period of interaction with them, I

could play a role in nurturing motivation during the teaching environment that I created during my sessions. I continued to be mindful that negative attitudes towards English could indeed be one of many factors that could affect their metaphor learning tasks.

4.3.3 Task2: Explain what is on the card? (Interpretation)

In this task each student was given a slip of paper that included the following statement: “I found two men *nosing* around my boat.” The metaphors selected is Type 6 which are metaphors that are conceptually and linguistically different in both L1 and L2 (culture- based metaphor) (see Chapter 2). This task was teacher-led. I used analogical reasoning (Littlemore, 2012) to guide my students to reach the conceptual meaning. As I did that, I observed and wrote down the explanations and strategies they used before reaching the target conceptual meaning. Students were asked to circle the most difficult words, and then try to explain the meaning of the underlined words, first individually, then discuss their answers with the group before sharing them with me. As they discussed difficult words in groups, after writing them individually, they tried to explain them as group work using different strategies to explain the metaphors (see Chapter 2). The following section includes data extracts from students’ answers that represent different strategies of how they explained the metaphors before reaching the conceptual meaning. I begin with the results of the Upper- Intermediate groups followed by the Advanced level groups.

4.3.4 Upper- Intermediate Group & Advanced-level Group

For the Upper- Intermediate level group, the most prevalent strategy for 10% of Upper-Intermediate level students and for 18% of advanced level students was the conceptual meaning of ‘nosing’, some associated the nose with searching, just like a dog uses its nose to search and follow scents, for example:

“I think it means searching around.” [St. 9. A.]

Others associated the nose with Arabic connotations. Nose in Arabic is associated with curiosity and intrusiveness. Therefore, nose in Arabic is conceptually similar to English and the students were guided by the concept of ‘nose’ to reach the conclusion that the person was curious, for example:

“Does it mean curious?” [St. 5. U.].

The majority, 80% of Upper-Intermediate level students and 46% of Advanced level students, misinterpreted the meaning of the underlined metaphor. They started by explaining:

“There is a loud noise in the surroundings.” [St. 7. U.]

“It is noisy near the boat”. [St. 3. A.]

This might be because they misread the word as noisy instead of nosing, or it might reflect a low English proficiency level; 10% of Upper-Intermediate level students and 18% of Advanced level students gave irrelevant answers. After that, I started guiding the students to understand the meaning of the metaphorical expression by using analogical reasoning (see Chapter 2) and helped students reach the conceptual meaning of the expression.

4.3.5 Summary

To sum up, the task of explaining a culture-based metaphor revealed how difficult it was for both groups (Upper- Intermediate and Advanced level) alike. It also suggested that trying to reach the target conceptual meaning requires a lot of effort from both researcher and participants. As students started to engage in group work and discussed their answers, the activity revealed that the majority of the participants resorted first to giving a literal meaning. Some took it further to look for conceptual meanings associated with nose such as searching (e.g. a dog uses its nose to search and track) and being intrusive (e.g. in Arabic, there is a saying that goes ‘he inserts his nose in everything’ which means being intrusive and curious). However, when I started using analogical reasoning, I observed how students’ answers began to crystallize as they acknowledged that they needed to consider both the context of the expression and what it might mean in English culture. However, since their awareness of English culture was restricted to how much English they were exposed to in their lives, it was rather challenging for the majority of participants to reach the conceptual meaning of the culture- based metaphor. It is worth noting that these participants studied English as a school subject taught 3 times per week for 45 minutes in state schools and 4 times per week for 45 minutes in private bilingual schools.

4.3.6 Task3: Rating Sheet Exercise (Cultural Associations)

The aim of this task was to explore whether Kuwaiti EFL learners attach cultural associations from their L1 language and culture to their understanding of L2 metaphors. The type of English metaphor used in this task was Type 3 which is linguistically similar in both Arabic and English

and conceptually different in both languages (see Chapter 2). In this task, I handed each student a slip of paper that had the following expression:

***“Break a leg!** Shouted the stage director to his actors before the beginning of the play.”*

I used a rating sheet board divided into three columns: 1) Suitable, 2) Not suitable, 3) I’m not sure. Students were asked to rate if the expression above was socially acceptable in that context. The following section displays the ratings for the Experimental Upper- Intermediate focus group followed by the Experimental Advanced focus group.

4.3.6.1. Not Suitable

Based on the results of the ratings, 19% of the Upper-Intermediate level students and 50% of the Advanced level students found the expression not suitable or socially acceptable in that context, for example:

“No, it’s not suitable, he is threatening the actors.” [Student. 7. U.]

“No, it’s not suitable, actors are getting ready for the play, they need support not disrespectful comments.” [Student.3. A.]

It can be argued that the students relied on the literal meaning of the expression and understood it as a threatening or negative comment by relying on their L1 knowledge. This is because this expression has a negative conceptual meaning in Kuwaiti Arabic; “break a leg” is understood as a curse or ‘doom be upon you’, or ‘a wish of bad luck’. However, in English, conceptually it means the opposite, it is an encouraging expression for good luck. Thus, this example agrees with Charteris-Black’s (2002) view that it is common for students to find metaphors that are

linguistically similar but conceptually different in the target language and the students' first language problematic.

4.3.6.2. *Not Sure*

Of Upper-Intermediate level students, 25%, were not sure of the meaning of this expression, and of advanced level students, 33%. The following section includes examples, the statements quoted are reflective of the sample's view:

"I'm not sure, it is not related to the sentence." [St. 3. U.]

"I'm not sure, I didn't understand why "break a leg!" is used here, it doesn't make sense. I think the expression could be changed to the word "relax", it makes more sense." [St. 5. A.]

Participants' responses indicate that linguistically similar but conceptually different metaphors in both Arabic and English language are some of the most confusing metaphors, which once again agrees with Charteris-black (2002). The students were not sure of the meaning; therefore, they were not able to suggest if it was culturally acceptable to use this expression in this context or not. The following quotation reflects this uncertainty:

"I know the meaning of break, but it doesn't go with it!" [St. 5. A.]

However, through analogical reasoning (see Chapter 3) and discussion, the participants understood the target's conceptual meaning at the end of the task.

4.3.6.3. *Suitable*

From the results of the rating board, 56% of upper-intermediate students and 17% of advanced level students found it a socially suitable expression, however most of the responses from both groups show that they did not understand the conceptual meaning, for example:

“Yes, it’s suitable. It means move quickly.” [St. 6. U.]

“Yes, it is suitable. A director usually screams in work settings!” [St. 7. A.]

“Yes, its suitable. At work it is acceptable.” [St. 11. A.]

When they explained why this expression was suitable, some students said that they thought it is suitable because it is acceptable behaviour from a director (as an authority figure being dominant and shouting or cursing), assuming that the meaning of “Break a leg” is to shout at those inferior to the director. There was only one student from the upper-intermediate level who found it to be a socially acceptable expression based on the conceptual meaning it carries, she explained:

“Yes, it is suitable. It means go ahead!” [St. 10. U.]

It can be argued that, based on the results of both the Upper- Intermediate and Advanced groups, when it comes to this particular activity, language proficiency level does not seem to be an important factor as both groups seemed to have an equivalent approach to understanding and making sense of new metaphors. Yet, this conclusion cannot be drawn for all tasks, as linguistic proficiency in subsequent research activities was featured as a highly influential factor, as I illustrate in Chapter 5.

4.3.7 Task4: Feedback

At the end of the focus group interview activity, I asked the participants the following question: *“What is the most important thing you have heard in our discussion today?”* This question aimed to get feedback and allow for a free discussion where students could comment on the activities they completed during their focus group interview. The responses from both groups foregrounded a key theme which is linked to the debate on *“whether or not to teach English metaphors”* in the English language classroom. This theme is discussed below, with data extracts from both groups.

4.3.7.1. *Whether or not to teach Metaphors in the EFL classroom*

Responses to the closing questions raised a concern that English language teachers in my research context tend to exclude metaphors from their teaching materials. Many of the responses indicate that some students were surprised that metaphors exist in the English language, for example:

“I didn’t know that in English they had metaphors like “nosing around”, like us!” [St. 5. A.]

“I never had a lesson from primary to college where I was taught English metaphors.” [St. 7. A.]

Others explained that their teachers avoided teaching them metaphors, for example:

“My teachers never taught me metaphors, they mostly gave us vocabulary lists to learn off by heart and translate difficult words into Arabic.” [St. 3. A.]

And the majority of the participants who experienced this short learning session in the form of an interview reported that it is important to learn English metaphors and that teachers should not avoid teaching them. The following quotations illustrate this view:

"I love the stories behind metaphors, it's nice to know the meanings in English culture." [St.5. U.]

"When you asked me to think about the meaning of every word and the overall context, and to picture the meaning in English culture, I found an interesting way to learn." [St.8. A.]

"I think it's important to learn English metaphors to speak better English." [St.8. A.]

Some of the students were surprised that they were asked to break the cycle of rote learning whereby they memorise vocabulary lists and grammar rules and look for literal meanings. That is to say, asking them to look at the context and infer meanings was not a regular classroom activity, as demonstrated in the following quotations:

"Before, I used to look at an English word and translate it word for word, after today I will read and re-read any English sentence and think before deciding the meaning." [St. 9. U.]

"If I see a metaphor again, I will stop and think about the literal meaning and if it has another meaning in English culture." [St. 1. U.]

"It is strange that you asked us to look at the context before deciding the meaning of the expression "Break a leg!"'" [St. 3. A.]

These responses are reflective of some of the classroom practices that the participants are used to in Kuwaiti EFL classrooms. For many students, English is introduced as a subject like mathematics or science. It is presented as rigid, and the students are asked to learn it by

remembering long vocabulary lists and grammar rules. As such, these comments indicate that English metaphors are not taught to EFL learners but are avoided. That is probably why the participants in this study were not equipped with the skills to understand different types of English metaphors. In Chapter 5, I discuss the importance of equipping students with metaphor sense-making skills as part of introducing English as a language for communication, not a subject to be memorised. In the next section, I move on to present the results of the three (pre-, post- and delayed) questionnaires, highlighting the differences between the experiment group and the control group, as well as exploring the impact of linguistic proficiency on acquiring metaphor sense-making skills.

4.4 Findings 3: Questionnaires

In this section, I present the results of the data obtained from three questionnaire stages (pre-, post- and delayed post-). The questionnaires were administered to four groups:

1. Control Upper- Intermediate linguistic proficiency group
2. Control Advanced Linguistic proficiency group
3. Experimental Upper- Intermediate linguistic proficiency group
4. Experimental Advanced Linguistic proficiency group

This section is structured as follows. First, I present the results of Part 1 of the questionnaires (pre-, post- & delayed post-) from each of the four groups, starting with the control group results followed by the experimental group results. Second, I present the results of Part 2 of the pre-, post- and delayed-post questionnaires. This section is divided into two sub-sections: Likert-scale results and explanation results. All sections' results correspond to the research questions (see

Chapter 1). Template analysis was used for Part 1 of the questionnaire to highlight the themes and strategies used by the participants. After that, I quantify these themes and strategies to identify patterns and trends to help understand the differences between the four groups; SPSS software was used for the quantifiable results of Part 1 and the Likert scales in Part 2 to statistically analyse and present the quantitative data obtained from the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires.

4.4.1 Parametric versus non-parametric statistical tests

Data analysis using SPSS can be quite straightforward, however the selection of an appropriate test depends entirely on the decision of the researcher (Norusis, 2006). The decision to use parametric or non-parametric statistical tests is not random. Some scholars distinguish between parametric and non-parametric tests based on the level of measurement represented by the data being analysed. Inferential statistical tests evaluate interval data categorised as parametric tests, whereas tests that evaluate nominal data and ordinal data are categorised as non-parametric (Sheskin, 2003). The interval scale of measurement is a numerical scale where not only is the order of the values known, but also the exact differences/ intervals between the values (test scores are a typical example) (Dörnyei, 2007; Larson-Hall, 2010). Researchers in the field of second language and applied linguistics research, e.g. Lowie & Seton (2012), argue that the distinction is not only made on the basis of the type of data, but also on the assumption of normality in the distribution of data. Normality in the distribution of data means that if the data were plotted, the result should be a symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, where the greatest frequency of score accumulates in the middle and smaller frequencies fall towards the extremes

(Dörnyei, 2007). According to Dörnyei (2007), Larson-Hall (2010), Kinnear & Gray (2012) and Lowie & Seton (2012), to make an objective decision on the normality of data, it is recommended that a test of normality be run. Data do not have to be perfectly normal because most procedures work well with data that are only approximately normally distributed (Dörnyei, 2007), and other procedures can work very well with non-normal data, i.e. non-parametric tests. Therefore, after I analysed Part1 of the questionnaire using template analysis I found seven strategies that arose in the (pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires). However, template analysis as a tool does not indicate which strategy was most used in the pre-, post- or delayed post-questionnaires or which strategy was dominantly used by the students in different groups, nor does it highlight any changes in strategy use; for these reasons, I decided to quantify the seven strategies and feed them into SPSS in order to analyse the data obtained from Part 1 and use parametric tests. I used cross-tabulation to compare groups and strategies obtain percentages.

4.4.2 Finding the right test for my quantified qualitative data

The quantified qualitative data obtained from Part 1 of the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires cannot be categorised as interval data. The interval scale of measurement is a numerical scale, whereas the seven strategies used by the students, even if they were given numbers such as Strategy 1, Strategy 2, Strategy 3 etc., cannot be calculated on a scale of 1 to 7. Because all strategies are equal in my research, if a student uses Strategy 1 the value of Strategy 1 on a scale is the same as Strategy 7. Therefore, if a student selects Strategy 1 her selection does not mean it is of low or high value on the scale. It just shows the different usages of strategies. What I need from SPSS software is for it to show me the most frequently used strategy amongst

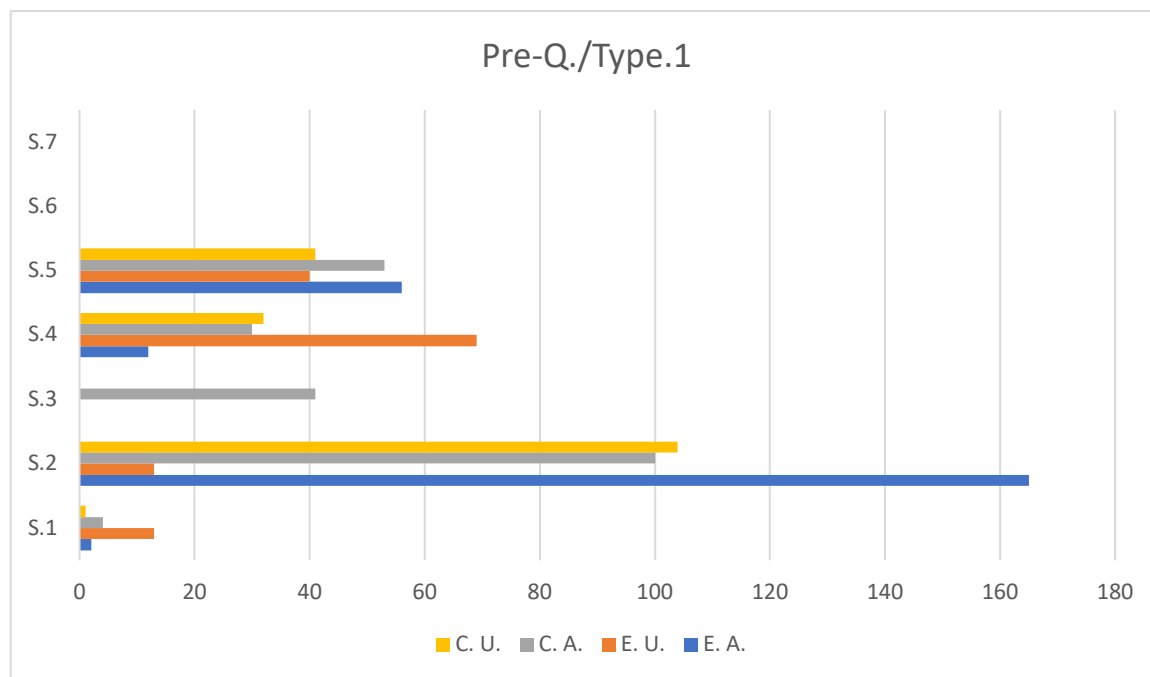
each group in each phase (pre-, post-, delayed post- questionnaires). Therefore, the cross-tabulation option was used to calculate the most frequently used strategy for each group and get a percentage for each question separately. Then, I opted to collapse the questions that fall under Type 1 metaphor, Type 3 metaphor and Type 6 metaphor to see what the most frequent strategy was for each type as intended in the questionnaire design via the cross-tabulation option. In addition, I calculated, in percentages, which strategy was used most before and after the teaching intervention for the experimental groups, and which strategies were dominant in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires for each group using the cross-tabulation option. Furthermore, to obtain accurate results, I also decided to use Bar Charts to show the results, as well as tables that include raw numbers from the data and percentages, to explain my results and use SPSS software where necessary to show comparisons between groups.

4.4.3 Results of Part 1/Pre-questionnaire

In this section I discuss the data obtained from the pre-questionnaire starting with the control group results (Upper- intermediate and Advanced level) followed by the results of the experimental groups (Upper- intermediate and Advanced level). As mentioned earlier, to present the results I will be using both a Bar Chart and a table that consists of raw numbers and percentages from the data. Each Bar Chart will include the results of the four groups (Control; Upper- intermediate and Advanced level, and experimental; Upper-intermediate and Advanced level) for the three types of metaphors used: Type 1 metaphor in questions 1–4, Type3 metaphor in questions 5– 8 and Type 6 metaphor in questions 9– 15 (see Appendix H). The table used under each Bar-Chart displays raw numbers in the data, and the percentages of strategies used for each

type of metaphor for all groups. For percentage results for each question and for each group, control and experimental, please refer to Tables 1, 2, 3 & 4 in Appendix 14.

4.4.3.1. Results for Type 1 metaphor/pre-questionnaire



Bar Chart 4:. Results for Type1 metaphor in the pre-questionnaire for all groups.

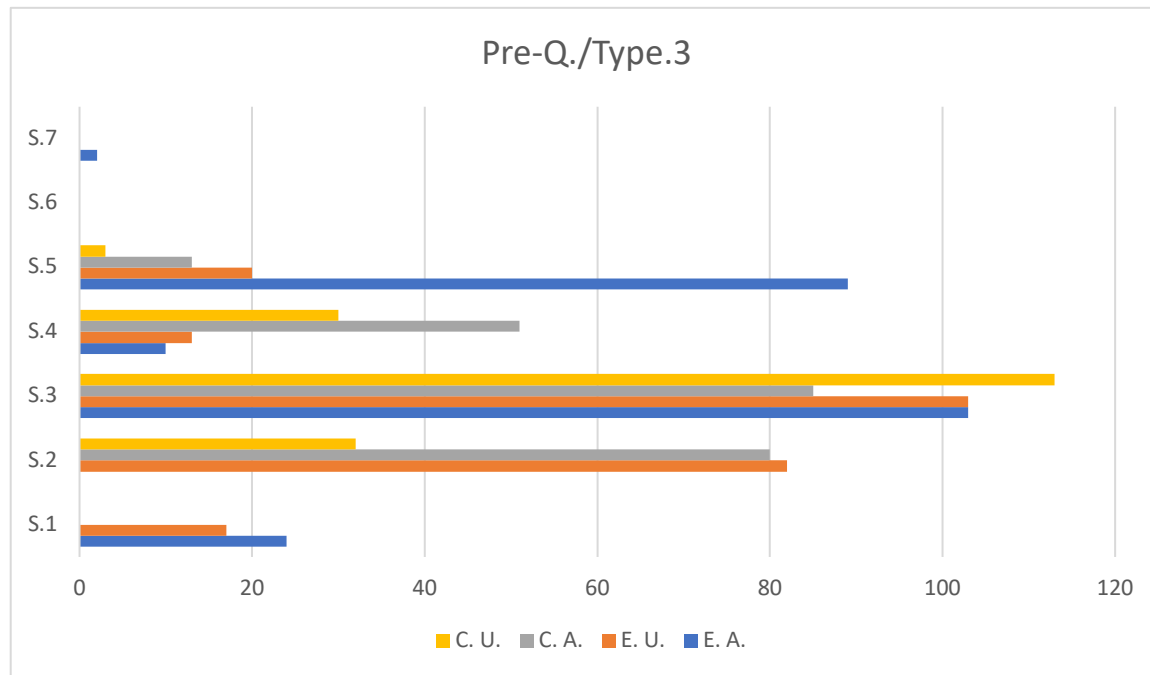
S.1 = (Strategy1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy 2: Word for word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 14: Percentage results for Type1 metaphor/pre-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 1 Metaphor										
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	1	104	0	32	41	0	0
			Percentages	0%	58%	0%	18%	23%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	4	100	41	30	53	0	0
			Percentages	2%	44%	18%	13%	23%	0%	0%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	43	Raw Numbers	13	113	0	69	40	0	0
			Percentages	6%	48%	0%	29%	17%	0%	0%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	2	165	0	12	56	0	0
			Percentages	1%	70%	0%	5%	24%	0%	0%

As mentioned earlier, Bar Chart 4 and Table 14 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire for Type1 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually similar in both English and Arabic) that includes questions 1, 2, 3 & 4 for all groups were inserted. The results of the pre-questionnaire show that the most used strategy amongst all groups was Strategy 2, Word for word meaning: 58% for Control Upper-intermediate group, 44% for Control Advanced group, 48% for Experimental Upper-intermediate group and 70% for Experimental Advanced group. For example, for Q.1 "اصيد الطائرة" ENG/T. "catch my plane" [St.3. E. A.]; for Q.2. "اعمار" ENG/T. "ages" [St.17. E. A.]; for Q.3 "فكرة" ENG/T. "idea" [St.3. E. U.]; for Q.4. "شهر عسل" ENG/T. "honeymoon" [St.4. C. U.]. Other strategies that were used for Type 1 metaphor by all groups in general were Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy 3, Contextual meaning, Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

4.4.3.2. Results for Type 3 metaphor/ pre-questionnaire



Bar Chart 5: Results for Type 3 metaphor in the pre-questionnaire for all groups.

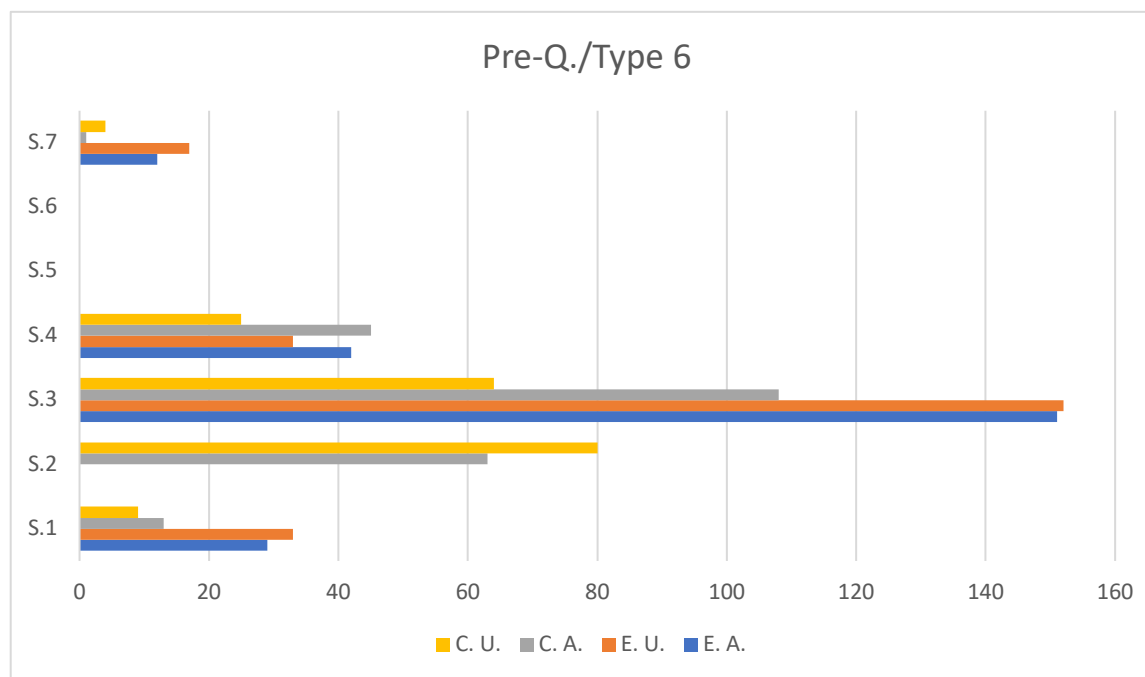
S.1 = (Strategy1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word for word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy7: L1 transfer).

Table 15: Percentage results for Type3 metaphor/pre-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-Questionnaire					S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 3 Metaphor											
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers		0	32	113	30	3	0	0
			Percentages		0%	18%	63%	17%	2%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers		0	80	85	51	13	0	0
			Percentages		0%	35%	37%	22%	6%	0%	0%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers		17	82	103	13	20	0	0
			Percentages		7%	35%	44%	6%	8%	0%	0%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers		24	0	103	10	89	0	2
			Percentages		11%	0%	45%	4%	39%	0%	1%

For Type 3 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically similar but conceptually different in both English and Arabic), Bar Chart 5 and Table 15 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that include questions (5, 6, 7, 8) for all groups were inserted. The results of the pre-questionnaire show that the strategy used most amongst all four groups is Strategy 3 (contextual meaning), at 63% the Control Upper-intermediate group, 37% for the Control Advanced group, 44% of the Experimental Upper-intermediate group and 45% the Experimental Advanced group. For example, Q.5. "حزينة" ENG/T. "sad" [St. 11. E. A.]; Q. 6. "ضيق" ENG/ T. "annoyed" [St. 18. E. A.]; Q. 7. "مهموم" ENG/T. "worried" [St. 20. C. A.]; Q. 8. "عزيمة عشاء"ENG/ T. "dinner gathering" [St. 31. C. U.]. Other strategies that were used for Type 3 metaphor by all groups in general were Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning, and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

4.4.3.3. Results for Type6 metaphor/ pre-questionnaire



Bar Chart 6:. Results for Type 6 metaphor in the pre-questionnaire for all groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy 2: Word for word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7= (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 16: Percentage results for Type6 metaphor/ pre-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-Questionnaire					S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 6 Metaphor											
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers		9	80	64	25	0	0	4
			Percentages		5%	44%	35%	14%	0%	0%	2%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers		13	63	108	45	0	0	1
			Percentages		6%	27%	47%	20%	0%	0%	0%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers		33	0	152	33	0	0	17
			Percentages		14%	0%	65%	14%	0%	0%	7%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers		29	0	151	42	0	0	12
			Percentages		12%	0%	65%	18%	0%	0%	5%

For Type 6 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually different in both English and Arabic – culture-based), Bar Chart 6 and Table 16 were used, data from Part 1 of the

questionnaire that includes questions 9– 15 for all groups were inserted. The results of the pre-questionnaire show that the strategy most used by three groups was Strategy 3 contextual meaning: 47% for the Control Advanced group, 65% the Experimental Upper-intermediate group, 65% the Experimental Advanced group. For example, Q. 9. “تفاجأت” ENG/T. “surprised” [St. 13. E. U.]; Q. 10. “بيت قديم” ENG/ T. “Old house” [St. 1. E. A.]; Q. 11. “دعاية عجيبة” ENG/ T. “amazing advertisement” [St. 16. E. U.]; Q.12. “سريعة” ENG/ T. “fast” [St. 11. C. A.]; Q. 13. “خبر حزين” ENG/ T. “sad news” [St. 13. E. U.]; Q. 14. “ذهب بالليل” ENG/ T. “Gone at night” [St. 23. C. A.]; Q. 15. “تحسفت” ENG/ T. “ regret” [St. 22. E. A.]. While 44% of the Control Upper-intermediate group used Strategy 2, word-for-word meaning. For example, Q. 9. “ضرب السقف” ENG/ T. “hit the roof” [St. 22. C. U.]; Q.10. “ككاو” ENG/ T. “Chocolate” [St. 5. C. U.]; Q. 11. “تجاعيد” ENG/ T. “wrinkle” [St. 17. C. U.]; Q. 12. “تركض” ENG/T. “running” [St. 5. C. U.]; Q. 13. “فوق تحت” ENG/ T. “up/ down” [St. 13. C. U.]; Q. 14. “بومة” ENG/ T. “owl” [St. 14. C. U.]; Q. 15. “احراج” ENG/ T. “embarrassment” [St. 23. C. U.]. Other strategies that were used for Type 6 metaphor by all groups in general were Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

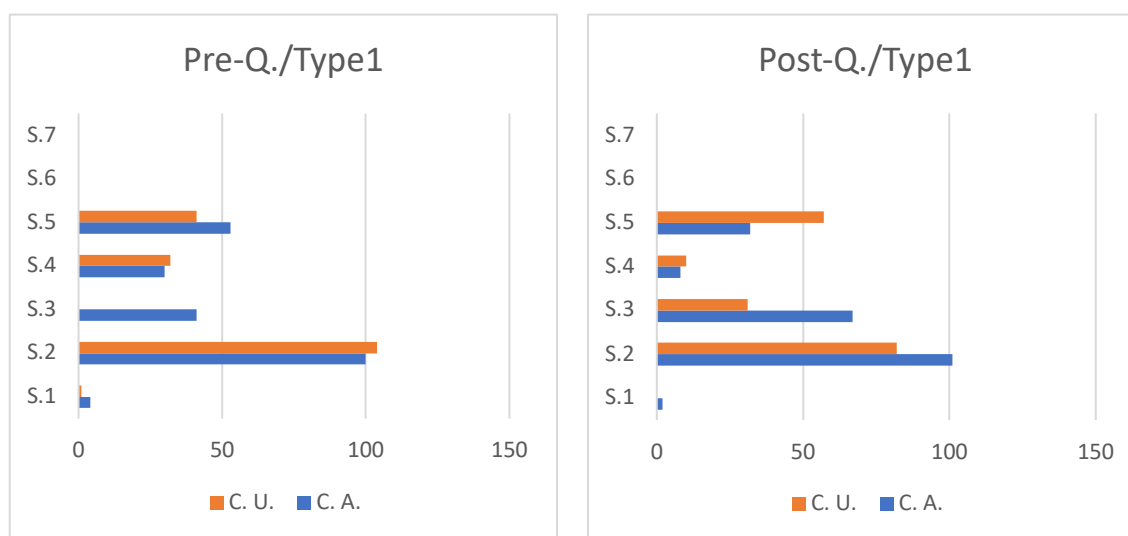
4.4.4 Effect of Teaching Intervention on Making sense of metaphors

This section looks at the effect of the teaching intervention on the participants’ sense-making of different types of metaphors. The post-questionnaire used after the teaching intervention is similar in content and design (following the three different types of metaphor used) to the pre-questionnaire with slight changes to the order of questions. In presenting the results of the different groups, I demonstrate the results using Bar Charts and Tables of percentage results that include raw data for the post-questionnaire. I begin with the results for the control group who

did not receive any treatment (teaching intervention), followed by the results of the experimental group who had the treatment. For the control and experimental groups, I display for each metaphor, Types 1, 3 & 6, two Bar Charts (one for the results of the pre-questionnaire and one for the post-questionnaire) in order to make the comparison clearer for the reader. I will also do the same for percentage tables that contain raw data numbers.

4.4.4.1. Results for Control groups

Results for Type1 metaphor/pre- vs post-questionnaire



Bar Chart 7: Results for Type1 metaphor in the pre- vs post-questionnaires for control groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy 2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 17: Percentage results of Type1 metaphor/pre-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-Questionnaire										
Type 1 Metaphor				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
C. U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	1	104	0	32	41	0	0
			Percentages	0%	58%	0%	18%	23%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	4	100	41	30	53	0	0
			Percentages	9%	22%	89%	65%	11%	0%	0%

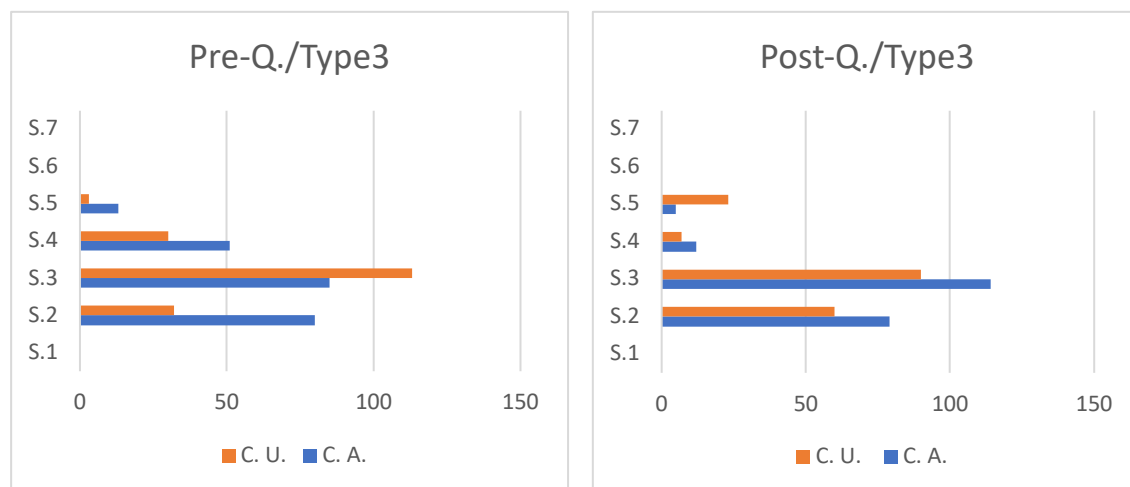
	Percentages	2%	44%	18%	13%	23%	0%	0%
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Table 18: Percentage results for Type1 metaphor/post-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data

Post-Questionnaire										
Type 1 Metaphor				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	0	82	31	10	57	0	0
			Percentages	0%	40%	17%	5%	32%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	42	Raw Numbers	2	101	67	8	32	0	0
			Percentages	1%	48%	32%	4%	15%	0%	0%

For Type 1 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually similar in both English and Arabic – culture- based), Bar Chart 7 and Tables 17 & 18 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 1– 4 for all control groups were inserted. In Table 10 the results of the post-questionnaire show that the strategy most used for both groups was Strategy 2, Word for word meaning: 40% the Control Upper-intermediate group, 48% for the Control Advanced group. For example, Q.1. “شهر عسل” ENG/ T. “honeymoon” [St. 4. C. A.]; Q.2. “فكرة” ENG/ T. “idea” [St. 6. C. A.]; Q.3. “عُمر” ENG/ T. “age” [St. 20. C. U.]; Q.4. “5aniq” ENG/ T. “suffocating” [St. 1. C. U.]. According to Bar Chart 7 the results for Type1 metaphor for the control groups are the same in the pre- and post-questionnaires. The strategy most used in the pre- and post-questionnaires is Strategy 2. In both the pre- and post-questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 1 metaphor by the control groups in general: Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

Results for Type3 metaphor/pre- vs post-questionnaire



Bar Chart 8: Results for Type 3 metaphor in the pre- vs post-questionnaires for control groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy 2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 19: Percentage results for Type3 metaphor/pre-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data.

Pre-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 3/Metaphor										
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	0	32	113	30	3	0	0
			Percentages	0%	18%	63%	17%	2%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	0	80	85	51	13	0	0
			Percentages	0%	35%	37%	22%	6%	0%	0%

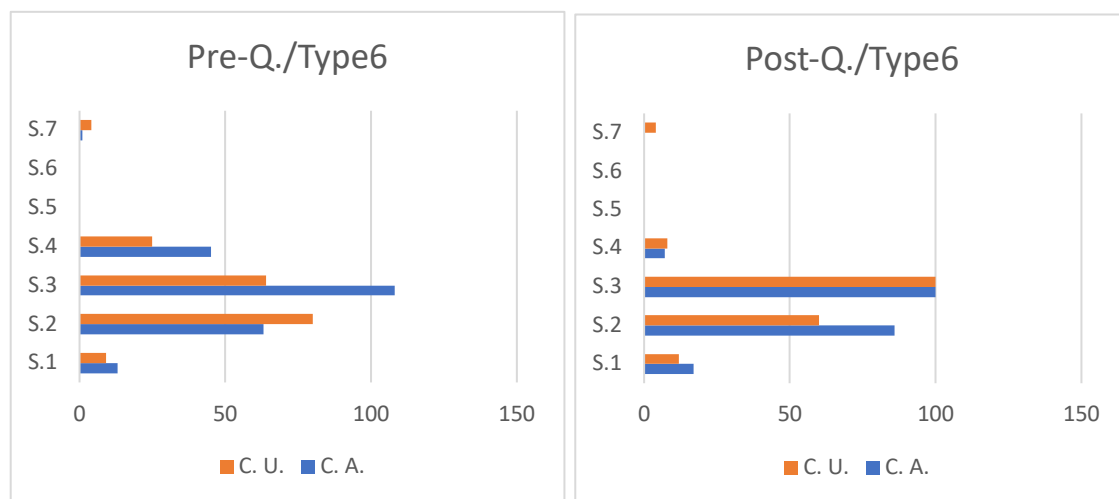
Table 20: Percentage results for Type 3 metaphor/ post-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data.

Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 3/Metaphor										
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	0	60	90	7	23	0	0
			Percentages	0%	33%	50%	4%	13%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	42	Raw Numbers	0	79	114	12	5	0	0
			Percentages	0%	38%	54%	6%	2%	0%	0%

For Type 3 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically similar but conceptually different in both English and Arabic), Bar Chart8 and Tables 19 & 20 were used, data from Part 1 of the

questionnaire that includes questions 5–8 for all control groups were inserted. In Table 12 the results of the post-questionnaire show that the strategy used most for both groups was Strategy 3 contextual meaning: 50% the Control Upper-intermediate group, 54% for the Control Advanced group. For example, Q. 5. “ضايق خلقها” ENG/ T. “depressed” [St. 3. C. A.]; Q. 6. “وصل درجة سيئة” ENG/ T. “dinner gathering” [St. 23. C. A.]; Q.7. “البكاء بكثرة” ENG/ T. “crying a lot” [St. 22. C. U.]; Q. 8. “عشاء مزدحم” ENG/ T. “crowded dinner gathering” [St. 13. C. U.]. According to Bar Chart 8 the results for Type 3 metaphor for the control groups are slightly similar in the pre- and post-questionnaires. The strategy most used in the pre-questionnaire, 64% the strategy most used for the upper-intermediate control group is Strategy 3, and at 37% for the advanced control group, is Strategy 3. In addition, in the post-questionnaire, the results in Bar Chart 8 show that strategy most used by both control groups was Strategy3: 50% the Control upper-intermediate group, and 54% for the Control Advanced group. In both the pre- and post-questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 3 metaphor by the control groups in general: Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

Results for Type 6 metaphor/pre- vs post-questionnaire



Bar Chart 9: Results for Type 6 metaphor in the pre- vs post- questionnaires for control groups.

S.1 = (Strategy1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy 2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 21: Percentage results for Type6 metaphor/pre-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data.

Pre-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 6 Metaphor										
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	9	80	64	25	0	0	4
			Percentages	5%	44%	35%	14%	0%	0%	2%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	13	63	108	45	0	0	1
			Percentages	6%	27%	47%	20%	0%	0%	0%

Table 22: Percentage results for Type6 metaphor/post-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data

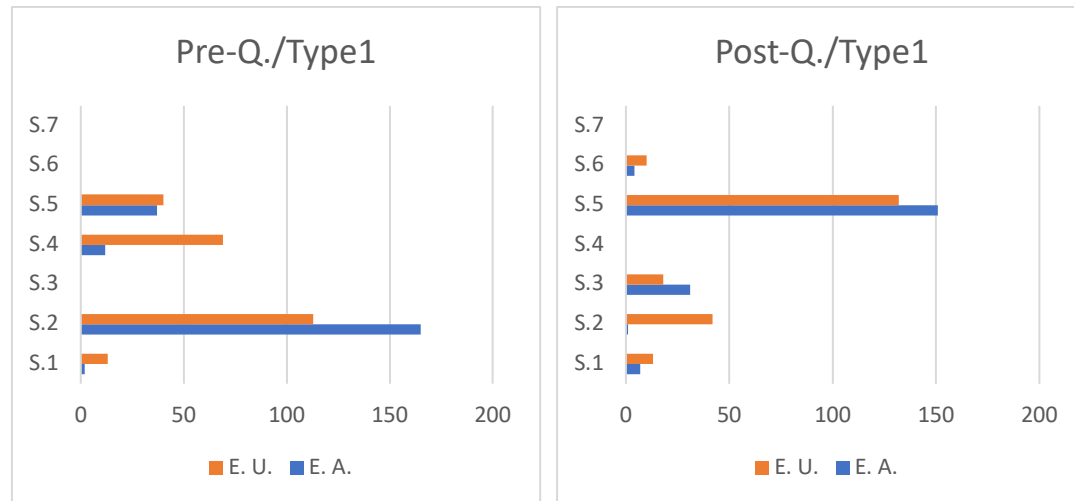
Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 6 Metaphor										
C.U.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	12	60	100	8	0	0	0
			Percentages	7%	33%	56%	4%	0%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	17	86	100	7	0	0	0
			Percentages	8%	41%	48%	3%	0%	0%	0%

For Type 6 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually different in both English and Arabic – culture-based), Bar Chart 9 and Tables 21 & 22 were used, data from Part 1 of the

questionnaire that includes questions 9–15 for all control groups were inserted. The results of the post-questionnaire show that strategy most used for both groups was Strategy 3 contextual meaning: 56% the Control Upper-intermediate group, 48% for the Control Advanced group. For example, Q. 9. “موجود” ENG/ T. “not there” [St. 3. A. C.]; Q. 10. “دعاية ممتعة” ENG/ T. “entertaining advertisement” [St. 16. C. A.]; Q. 11. “غلط مع المسافر” ENG/ T. “he wronged the passenger” [St. 5. C. A.]; Q. 12. “أسرع وحدة” ENG/ T. “fastest one” [St.13. C. U.]; Q. 13. “تفاجأت” ENG/ T. “surprised” [St. 35. C. U.]; Q. 14. “للأسوأ” ENG/ T. “the worst” [St. 38. C. U.]; Q.15. “عشا مزدحم” ENG/ T. “crowded dinner gathering” [St. 9. C. U.]. According to Bar Chart 9 the results for Type6 metaphor for the control groups are slightly similar in the pre- and post-questionnaires. In the pre-questionnaire the strategy most used for the Upper- intermediate group was Strategy 3. While the strategy most used for the Control advanced group was Strategy 2. However, in the post-questionnaire both control groups used Strategy 3. In both the pre- and post-questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 6 metaphor by the control groups in general: Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy 4 guessing meaning and Strategy 7, L1 transfer.

4.4.4.2. Results Experimental groups

Results of Type1 metaphor/pre- vs post-questionnaire



Bar Chart 10 : Results for Type1 metaphor in the pre vs post- questionnaires for experimental groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 23: Percentage results of Type1 metaphor/ pre-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 1 Metaphor										
E.U.	Total No. of Students	43	Raw Numbers	13	113	0	69	40	0	0
			Percentages	6%	48%	0%	29%	17%	0%	0%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	2	165	0	12	56	0	0
			Percentages	1%	70%	0%	5%	24%	0%	0%

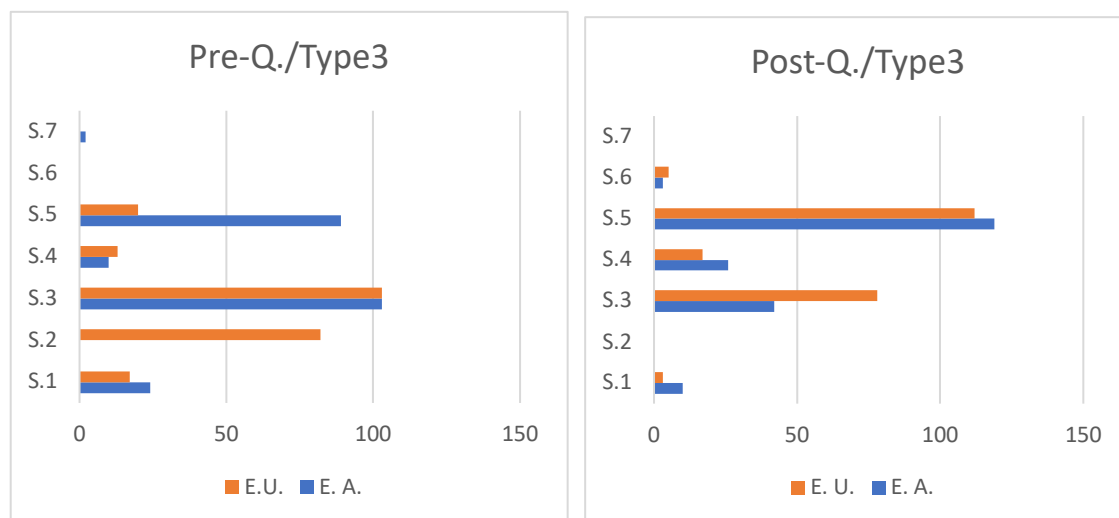
Table 24: Percentage results for Type1 metaphor/ post-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data

Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 1 Metaphor										
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	13	42	18	0	132	10	0
			Percentages	6%	21%	9%	0%	64%	5%	0%

E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	7	1	31	0	151	4	0
			Percentages	4%	0%	16%	0%	78%	2%	0%

For Type 1 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually similar in both English and Arabic – culture-based), Bar Chart10 and Tables 23 & 24 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 1– 4 for all control groups were inserted. In Table 16 the results of the post-questionnaire show that the strategy most used for both groups was Strategy 5 Conceptual meaning: 64% the Experimental Upper-intermediate group, 78% for the Experimental Advanced group. For example, Q. 1. “البداية” ENG/ T. “the beginning” [St. 33. E. A.]; Q. 2. “فكرة مغرية” ENG/ T. “tempting idea” [St. 18. E. A.]; Q. 3. “وقت طويل” ENG/ T. “long time” [St. 12. E. U.]; Q. 4. “الحق على الطائرة” ENG/ T. “catch my plane” [St. 15. E. U.]. According to Bar Chart10 the results for Type 1 metaphor for the experimental groups in the pre- and post-questionnaires are different. The strategy most used in the pre-questionnaire before the teaching intervention was Strategy 2 for the experimental groups. However, in the post-questionnaire the most used strategy after the teaching intervention was Strategy 5. In the pre-questionnaire other strategies were used for Type 1 metaphor by the experimental groups in general: Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy 2, Word-for-word meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning. However, in the post-questionnaire we see a change in the use of strategies with a large increase in the usage of Strategy 5 and little or no use of Strategy 4, which might be because the teaching intervention focused on analogical reasoning as a teaching tool, and that could have facilitated the development of conceptual meanings.

Results for Type3 metaphor/pre- vs post-questionnaire



Bar Chart 11: Results for Type3 metaphor in the pre- vs post-questionnaires for experimental groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 25: Percentage results of Type3 metaphor/ pre-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data

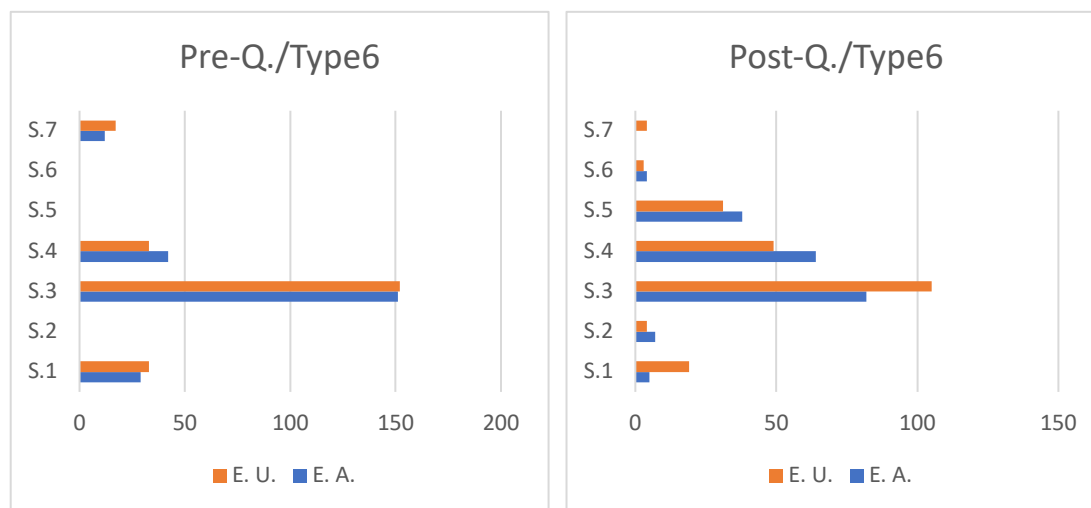
Pre-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type 3										
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	17	82	103	13	20	0	0
			Percentages	7%	35%	44%	6%	8%	0%	0%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	24	0	103	10	89	0	2
			Percentages	11%	0%	45%	4%	39%	0%	1%

Table 26: Percentage results for Type3 metaphor/ post-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data

Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type 3										
E.U.	Total No. of Students	43	Raw Numbers	3	0	78	17	112	5	0
			Percentages	2%	0%	36%	8%	52%	2%	0%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	10	0	42	26	119	3	0
			Percentages	2%	0%	36%	8%	53%	2%	0%

For Type 3 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically similar but conceptually different in both English and Arabic), Bar Chart 11 and Tables 25 & 26 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 5– 8 for all control groups were inserted. The results of the post-questionnaire show that the strategy used most for both groups were similar: 52% of the Experimental Upper intermediate group used Strategy 5, 53% of the Experimental Advanced group mostly used Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning. For example, for Q. 5. “علامة” ENG/ T. “sign” [St. 7. E. A.]; Q. 6. “انهارت” ENG/ T. “collapsed” [St. 8. E. A.]; Q. 7. “فجأة دمعت” ENG/ T. “suddenly she teared” [St. 11. E. A.]; Q. 8. “رسمي” ENG/ T. “official dinner” [St. 13. E. A.]. According to Bar Chart 11 the results for Type 3 metaphor for the experimental groups changed for both groups. The strategy most used in the pre-questionnaire for the Experiment Upper- Intermediate group it was Strategy 2. However, in the post-questionnaire the results show that there was a change in the strategy most used by the Experimental Upper- Intermediate group. The strategy most used was Strategy 5 and there was also a change in the strategy most used for the Experimental Advanced group from pre- to post-questionnaire. The most used strategy in the pre- questionnaire was Strategy 3 and in the post- questionnaire was Strategy 5. In both the pre- and post-questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 3 metaphor by the experimental groups in general: Strategy 4, guessing meaning and Strategy 7, L1 transfer.

Results for Type6 metaphor/pre- vs post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 12: Results for Type 6 metaphor in the pre- vs. post-questionnaires for experimental groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 27: Percentage results for Type 6 metaphor/pre-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type 6										
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	33	0	152	33	0	0	17
			Percentages	14%	0%	65%	14%	0%	0%	7%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	29	0	151	42	0	0	12
			Percentages	12%	0%	65%	18%	0%	0%	5%

Table 28: Percentage results for Type 6 metaphor/post-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data

Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type 6										
E.U.	Total No. of Students	43	Raw Numbers	19	4	105	49	31	3	4
			Percentages	9%	2%	49%	23%	14%	1%	2%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	5	7	82	64	38	4	0
			Percentages	2%	4%	41%	32%	19%	2%	0%

For Type 6 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually different in both English and Arabic – culture-based), Bar Chart 12 and Tables 27 & 28 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 9–15 for all experimental groups were inserted. The results of the post-questionnaire show that the strategy most used for both groups was Strategy 3, Contextual Meaning: 49% the Experimental Upper-intermediate group, and 41% for the Experimental Advanced group. For example, Q. 9. “يرى بالليل” ENG/ T. “sees at night” [St. 19. E.U.]; Q. 10. “عجيبة” ENG/ T. “fantastic” [St. 24. E. U.]; Q. 11. “شديد الاحراج” ENG/ T. “extremely embarrassing” [St. 21. E. A.]; Q. 12. “أسرع وحدة” ENG/ T. “fastest one” [St. 18. E. A.]; Q.13. “تفاجأت” ENG/ T. “surprised” [St. 2. A. E.]; Q. 14. “بيت هش” ENG/ T. “fragile house” [St. 33. U. E.]; Q. 15. “احباط” ENG/ T. “disappointment” [St. 14. E. A.]. According to Bar Chart 12 the results for Type 6 metaphor for the experimental groups were similar in the pre- and post-questionnaires. In the pre-questionnaire the strategy most used was Strategy 3. In addition, in the post-questionnaire both experimental groups used Strategy 3 the most. In the pre- questionnaire other strategies were used for Type 6 metaphor by the experimental groups in general: Strategy 1, literal meaning, Strategy 3, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 7, L1 transfer. However, after the experimental groups had the teaching intervention the results for the post-questionnaire showed the emergence of new strategies, e.g. Strategy 5 and Strategy 6, and the disappearance of Strategy 1.

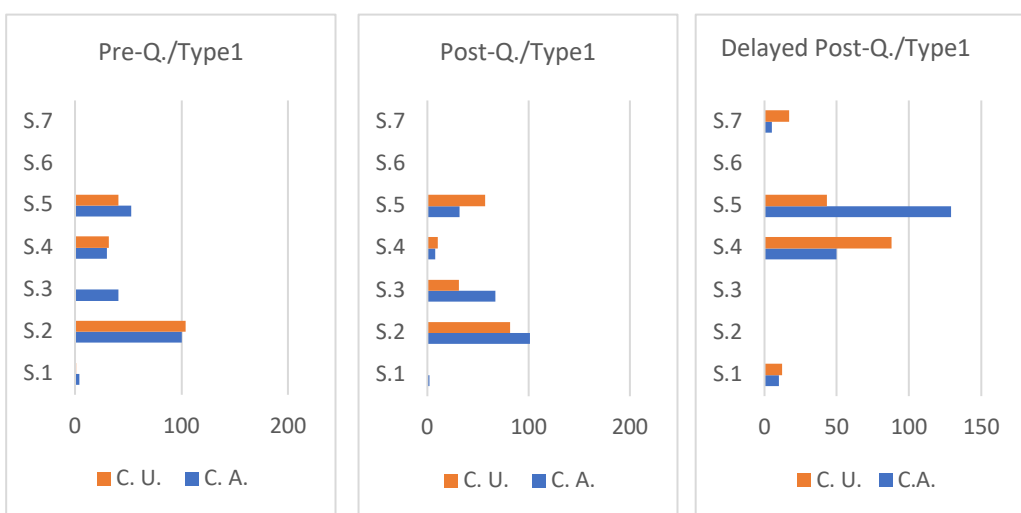
4.4.5 Effect of retention on Making sense of metaphors

This section looks at the effect of retention on the participants’ sense-making of metaphors. The delayed questionnaire is identical in content and order to the post-questionnaire; however, the

delayed post-questionnaire was given to the students after a period of one month and a half. Bar charts and percentage tables that include raw numbers of data are used in the analysis to present the results. To show the changes from the pre-, post- and delayed-post questionnaires I put all three bar charts for each group (controlled followed by experimental) in parallel, followed by a percentage table of delayed post-questionnaire results for both groups.

4.4.5.1. Results for Control groups

Results for Type 1 metaphor/pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 13: Results of Type1 metaphor in the pre -post- delayed post- questionnaire for control groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

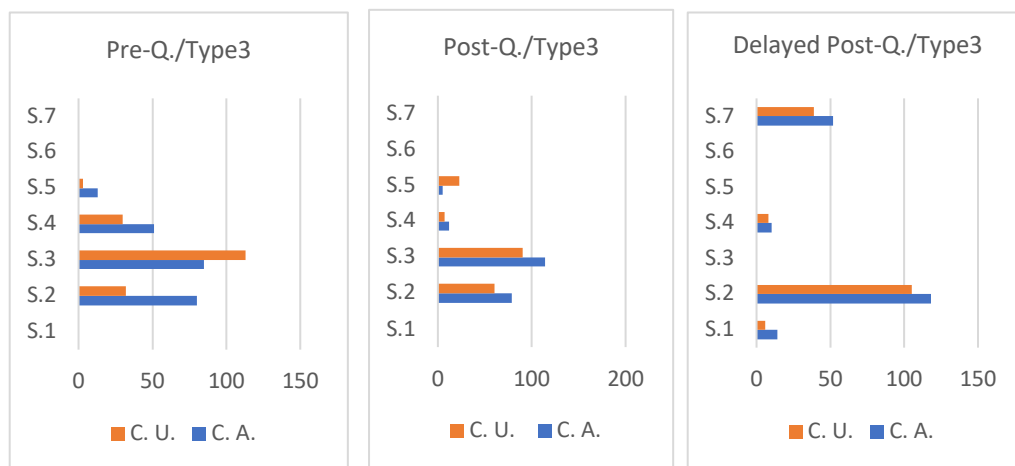
Table 29:. Percentage results for Type 1 metaphor/ delayed post-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data

Delayed Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type 1										
C.U.	Total No. of Students	36	Raw Numbers	12	0	0	88	43	0	17
			Percentages	7%	0%	0%	55%	27%	0%	11%

C.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	10	0	0	53	129	0	5
			Percentages	5%	0%	0%	26%	66%	0%	3%

For Type 1 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually similar in both English and Arabic – culture-based), Bar Chart 13 and Table 29 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 1– 4 for all control groups were inserted. Results of the delayed post-questionnaire show that the strategy most used for the control groups differed; at 55% the strategy most used for the Control upper-intermediate group was Strategy 4, guessing meaning. At 66% the strategy most used for the Control advanced group was Strategy 5. For example, Q.1. “بداية” ENG/T. “beginning” [St.25. C. A.]; Q.2. “فكرة مغرية” ENG/T. “tempting idea” [St.23. C. A.]; Q.3. “Takes so long” [St.8. C. A.]; Q.4. “الحق طيارة” ENG/T. “catch the plane” [St.23. C. A.]. According to Bar Chart 13 the results for Type1 metaphor for the control groups were the same in the pre- and post-questionnaires. The strategy most used in the pre- and post-questionnaires was Strategy 2 for both groups. However, in the delayed post-questionnaire the strategy most used for the control group differed: the Control Upper-intermediate group used Strategy 4 the most, while the Control Advanced group used Strategy 5 the most. In both the pre- , post- and delayed post- questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 1 metaphor by the control groups in general: Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

Results for Type3 metaphor/pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 14: Results for Type3 metaphor in the pre- vs post- and delayed post-questionnaires for control groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

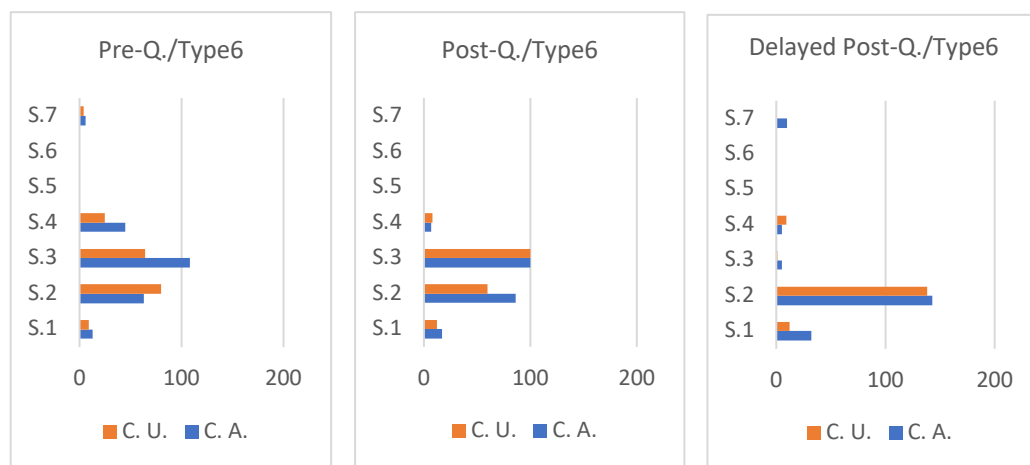
Table 30: Percentage results for Type3 metaphor/ delayed post-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data

Delayed Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Type 3 Metaphor										
C.U.	Total No. of Students	36	Raw Numbers	6	105	0	8	0	0	39
			Percentages	4%	66%	0%	5%	0%	0%	25%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	14	108	0	10	0	0	52
			Percentages	7%	61%	0%	5%	0%	0%	27%

For Type 3 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically similar but conceptually different in both English and Arabic), Bar Chart 14 and Table 30 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 5– 8 for all control groups were inserted. The results of the delayed post-questionnaire show that the strategy most used for both groups was Strategy 2, Word-for-word meaning: 66% the Control Upper-intermediate group, 61% for the Control Advanced group. For example, Q. 5. “ظل” ENG/ T. “shadow” [St. 5. C. U.]; Q.6.”كسرى” ENG/ T. “broken” [St. 3. C. U.]; Q.

7. “انفجار” ENG/ T. “explosion” [St. 17. C. A.]; Q. 8. “عشا” ENG/ T. “dinner” [St. 7. C. A.]. According to Bar Chart 14 the results for Type 3 metaphor for the control groups in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires differed: the strategy most used in the pre-questionnaire for all groups was Strategy 3. In the post-questionnaire the results in Bar-chart 14 show that strategy most used by both control groups was Strategy 3. While the strategy most used for both control groups in the delayed post questionnaire was Strategy 2. In the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 3 metaphor by the control groups in general: Strategy 4, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 7, guessing meaning.

Results for Type 6 metaphor/pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 15: Results for Type6 metaphor in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires for control groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy 2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 31:.. Percentage results for Type6 metaphor/ delayed post-questionnaire for control groups including raw numbers from data

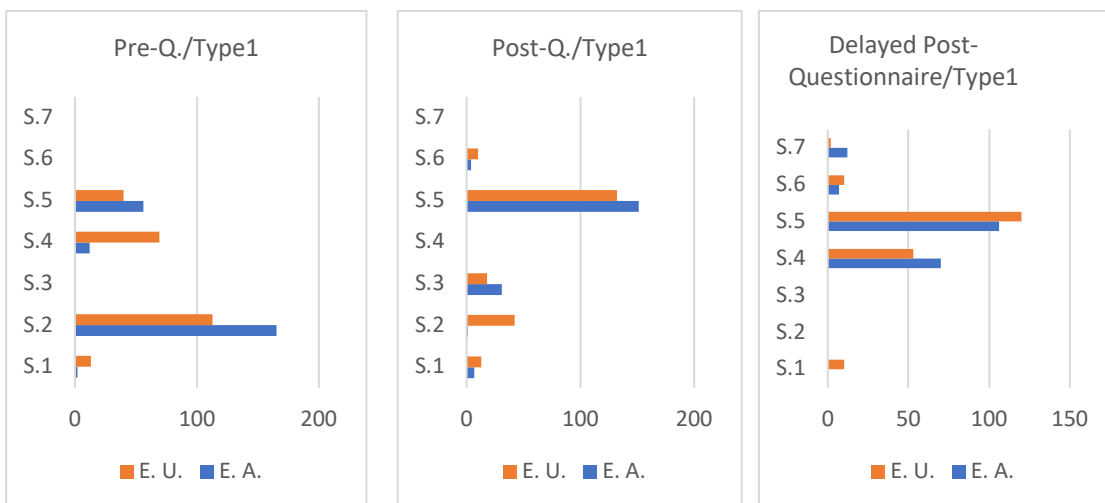
Delayed Post-Questionnaire							
Type 6 Metaphor	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7

C.U.	Total No. of Students	36	Raw Numbers	12	138	1	9	0	0	0
			Percentages	7%	86%	1%	6%	0%	0%	0%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	32	143	5	5	0	0	10
			Percentages	16%	73%	3%	3%	0%	0%	5%

For Type 6 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually different in both English and Arabic – culture-based), Bar Chart 15 and Table 31 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 9– 15 for all control groups were inserted. In Table 18 the results of the delayed post- questionnaire show that the strategy most used for both groups was Strategy 2, Word for word meaning: 86% the Control Upper-intermediate group, 73% for the Control Advanced group. For example, Q. 9. “بومة الليل” ENG/ T. “night owl” [St. 13. C. A.] ; Q. 10. “تجاعيد” ENG/ T. “wrinkle” [St. 2. C. A.]; Q. 11. “احراج” ENG/ T. “embarrassment” [St. 1. C. A.]; Q. 12. “جري” ENG/ T. “running” [St. 10. C. A.]; Q. 13. “ضرب السقف” ENG/ T. “hit the roof” [St. 5. C. U.]; Q.14. “ككاو هيرشي” ENG/ T. “Hershey Chocolate” [St. 8. C. U.]; Q. 15. “فوق تحت” ENG/ T. “up- down” [St. 18. C. U.]. According to Bar Chart 16 the results for Type 6 metaphor for the control groups in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires differed. In the pre- questionnaire the strategy most used at 44% for the Control Upper-intermediate group was Strategy 2. In the post-questionnaire both control groups used Strategy 3. While the strategy most used at 47% by the Control Advanced group was Strategy 3. However, in the delayed post-questionnaire the strategy most used for the control groups was Strategy 2. In the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 3 metaphor by the Control groups in general: Strategy1, Literal meaning, Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

4.4.5.2. Results for Experimental groups

Results for Type1 metaphor/pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 16: Results for Type1 metaphor in the pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires for experimental groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

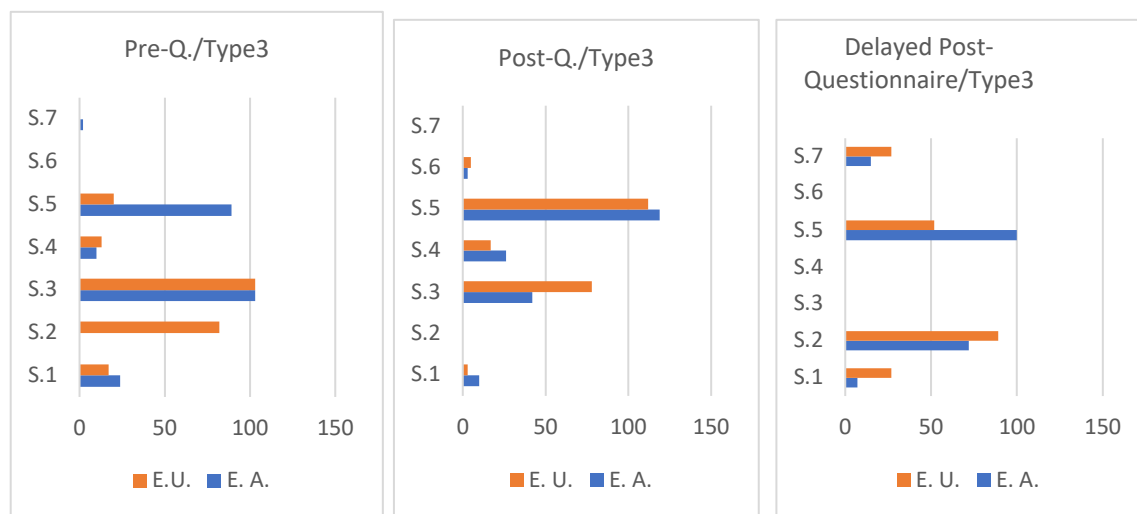
Table 32: Percentage results for Type1 metaphor/delayed post-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data.

Delayed Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type 1										
E. U.	Total No. of Students	38	Raw Numbers	10	0	0	53	120	10	2
			Percentages	5%	0%	0%	27%	62%	5%	1%
E. A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	0	0	0	70	106	7	12
			Percentages	0%	0%	0%	36%	54%	4%	6%

For Type 1 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually similar in both English and Arabic – culture-based), Bar Chart 16 and Table 32 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 1– 4 for all experimental groups were inserted. The results of the delayed post-questionnaire show that the strategy most used at 62% for the Experimental

Upper- intermediate group was Strategy 5, and 54% of the Experimental Advanced group used Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning. For example, Q.1. “بداية” ENG/T. “beginning” [St. 14. E. A.]; Q.2. “فكرة مغرية” ENG/T. “tempting idea” [St. 9. E. A.]; Q.3. “Takes so long” [St. 20. E. U.]; Q.4. “الحق طيارة” ENG/T. “catch the plane” [St. 16. E. U.]. According to Bar Chart 17 the results for Type 1 metaphor for the experimental groups in the pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires are different. The strategy most used in the pre-questionnaire before the teaching intervention was Strategy 2 for all groups. However, in the post-questionnaire (after the teaching intervention) and delayed post- questionnaire the strategy most used for both groups was Strategy 5. In the pre- questionnaire other strategies were used for Type 1 metaphor by the experimental groups in general: Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning. However, in the post-questionnaire we see a change in the use of strategies with a large increase in the usage of Strategy 4 and little or no use of Strategy 1. In the delayed post-questionnaire, the results show that the most used strategy by both groups remained Strategy 5.

Results for Type3 metaphor/pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 17: Results for Type3 metaphor in the pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires for experimental groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 33:Percentage results for Type3 metaphor/delayed post-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data.

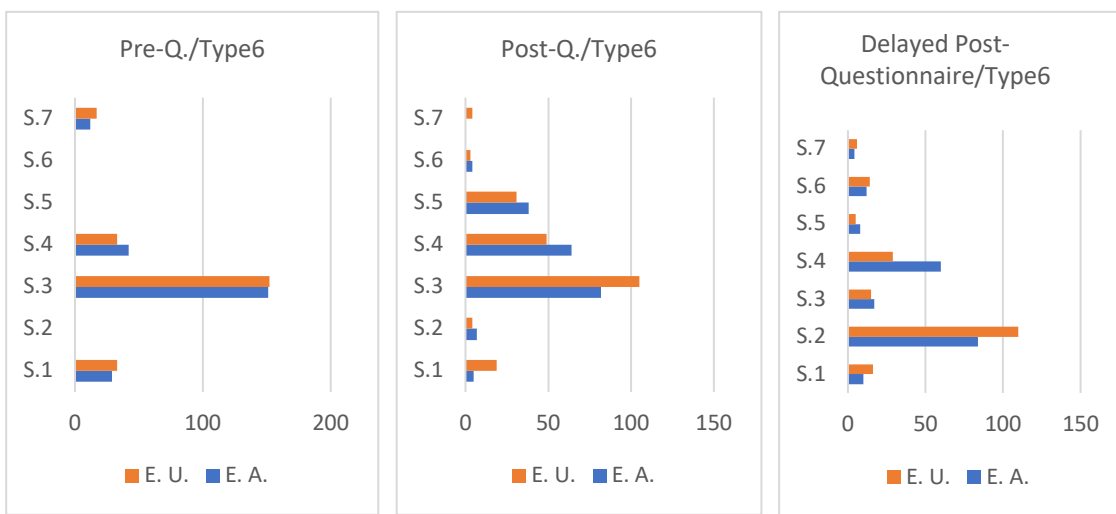
Delayed Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type.3				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
E.U.	Total No. of Students	38	Raw Numbers	27	89	0	0	52	0	27
			Percentages	14%	45%	0%	0%	27%	0%	14%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	7	72	0	0	100	0	15
			Percentages	4%	37%	0%	0%	51%	0%	8%

For Type 3 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically similar but conceptually different in both English and Arabic), Bar Chart 17 and Table 33 were used, data from Part 1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 5– 8 for all control groups were inserted. The results of the delayed post-questionnaire show that the most used strategy for both groups differ: 45% of the Experimental Upper intermediate group used Strategy 2 (word for word meaning). While 51% of the Experimental Advanced group mostly used Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning. For example, for Q.

5. "علامة" ENG/ T. "sign" [St. 7. E. A.]; Q. 6. "انهارت" ENG/ T. "collapsed" [St. 10. E. A.]; Q. 7. "فجأة دمعت" ENG/ T. "sudden tears" [St. 11. E. A.]; Q. 8. "رسمي" ENG/ T. "official dinner" [St. 13. E. A.].

According to Bar Chart 18 the results for Type 3 metaphor for the experimental groups changed from the pre- to the post- and delayed post-questionnaires. The strategy most used in the pre-questionnaire for both experiment groups was Strategy 3: 44% the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group, and 45% for the Experimental Advanced group. In the post-questionnaire the results show that there was no change in the strategy most used for the experimental upper-intermediate group from the pre- to the post-questionnaire, which was still Strategy 3. However, there was a change in the most used strategy by the Experimental advanced experimental group. The strategy most used was Strategy 5. In the delayed post-questionnaire, the most used strategy for the Upper-Intermediate experimental group was Strategy 2, while for the Advanced level it was Strategy 5. In the pre-, and post- and delayed post-questionnaires other strategies were used for Type 3 metaphor by the experimental groups in general: Strategy 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning.

Results for Type 6 metaphor/pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 18: Results for Type6 metaphor in the pre- vs post-questionnaires for experimental groups.

S.1 = (Strategy 1: Literal meaning), S.2 = (Strategy2: Word-for-word meaning), S.3 = (Strategy 3: Contextual meaning), S.4 = (Strategy 4: guessing meaning), S.5 = (Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning), S.6 = (Strategy 6: Metaphor for a metaphor), S.7 = (Strategy 7: L1 transfer).

Table 34: Percentage results for Type 6 metaphor/ delayed post-questionnaire for experimental groups including raw numbers from data.

Post-Questionnaire				S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
Metaphor/Type 6										
E. U.	Total No. of Students	38	Raw Numbers	16	110	15	29	5	14	6
			Percentages	9%	58%	8%	15%	3%	7%	3%
E. A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	10	84	17	60	8	12	4
			Percentages	5%	43%	9%	31%	4%	6%	2%

For Type 6 metaphor (metaphors that are linguistically and conceptually different in both English and Arabic – culture- based), Bar Chart 18 and Table 34 were used, data from Part1 of the questionnaire that includes questions 9– 15 for all experimental groups were inserted. The results of the delayed post-questionnaire show that both experimental groups used Strategy 2, Word-for-word meaning, the most: 58% the Experimental upper-intermediate group, 43% for the

Experimental Advanced group. For example, Q. 9. “بومة ليل” ENG/ T. “night owl” [St. 31. E. A.]; Q. 10. “تجاعيد” ENG/ T. “wrinkle” [St. 14. E. A.]; Q. 11. “احراج” ENG/ T. “embarrassment” [St. 25. E. A.]; Q. 12. “تركض” ENG/ T. “running” [St. 9. E. U.]; Q. 13. “ضرب السقف” ENG/ T. “hit the roof” [St. 38. E. U.]; Q. 14. “ككاو هيرشي” ENG/ T. “Hershey Chocolate” [St. 19. E. U.]; Q. 15. “فوق تحت” ENG/ T. “up-down” [St. 35. E. U.]. According to Bar Chart 19 the results for Type 6 metaphor for the experimental groups differ in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires. In the pre-questionnaire the strategy most used is Strategy 3 for all groups. In addition, in the post-questionnaire both experimental groups used Strategy 3 the most. In the delayed post-questionnaire both groups used Strategy 2 the most. In the pre- questionnaire other strategies were used for Type 6 metaphor by the experimental groups in general: Strategy 1, Literal meaning, Strategy, 5, Conceptual meaning and Strategy 4, guessing meaning. However, after the experimental groups received the teaching intervention the results of the post- questionnaire show the emergence of new strategies, e.g. Strategy 5 and Strategy 6, and the disappearance of Strategy 1. However, after some time, the results of the delayed post- questionnaire showed that there was a shift in strategies from the post-questionnaire where both groups mostly used Strategy 3 and Strategy 2.

4.4.6 Results for Part 2 in questionnaires

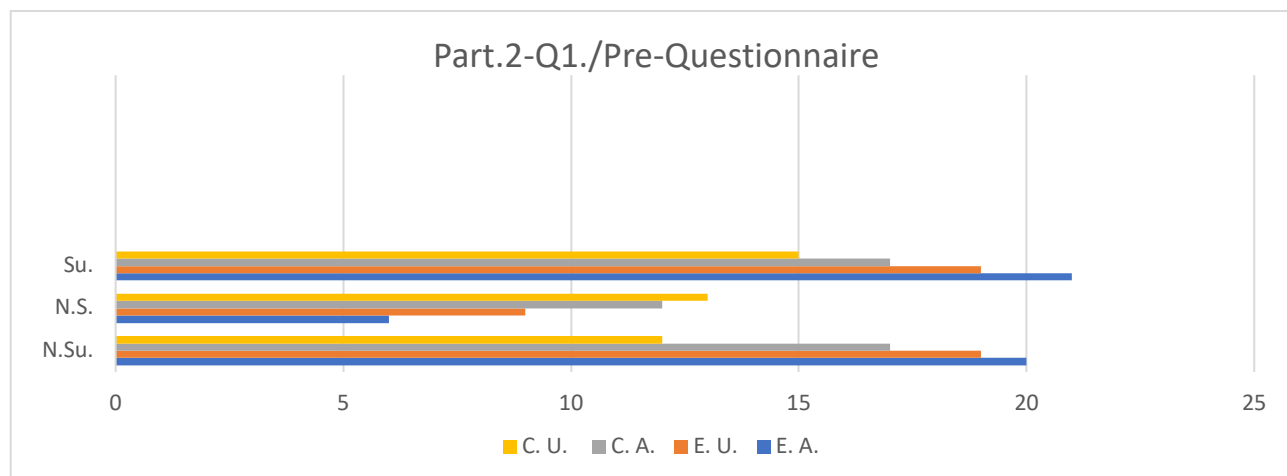
Questionnaires Part 2 includes the analysis of four questions that were presented to students in the form of a rating exercise, it consists of four examples of Type 3 English metaphorical expressions (i.e. metaphors that are conceptually different in both L1 and L2 but linguistically similar in both languages, see Chapter 1) and students were asked to rate if they found the

following expression Q. 1 “*I didn’t know you drink*”, Q. 2 “*I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs, I left them on this table last night?*”, Q. 3 “*I think she is nice, easy to talk to, and very simple*”, Q. 4 “*I have a date with Janet on Saturday*” socially acceptable to use in that context. The aim of this task was to see whether Kuwaiti EFL learners attached cultural associations from their L1 knowledge and culture to their understanding of L2 expressions.

I used a rating exercise divided into three options: 1) Suitable, 2) Not suitable, 3) I’m not sure. Students were asked to rate if the expressions above were socially acceptable to use in that context and explain the reasons for their selection. Therefore, the results of Part 2 of the questionnaire will be divided into two sections: A) Rating results. B) Explanation results. For the quantitative results I start with Phase 1: pre- questionnaire, followed by Phase 2: post-questionnaire, then Phase 3: delayed post-questionnaire. In each case I discuss the results of control groups followed by experimental groups. For the qualitative results I discuss the main themes found (Religion and Culture) in all students’ explanations for all groups in general. I start with the theme of Religion and discuss the results found in Phase 1: pre-questionnaire for questions 1– 4, followed by results for Phase 2, post-questionnaire for Qs 1– 4. Then the results of the post-questionnaire for Qs 1– 4. I then discuss the theme of Culture in the same order as the previous theme.

4.4.6.1. Rating Results in the pre- questionnaire

Results for Part 2 Q1/pre-questionnaire



Bar Chart 19: Results for Part 2 Q. in the pre- questionnaire for all groups.

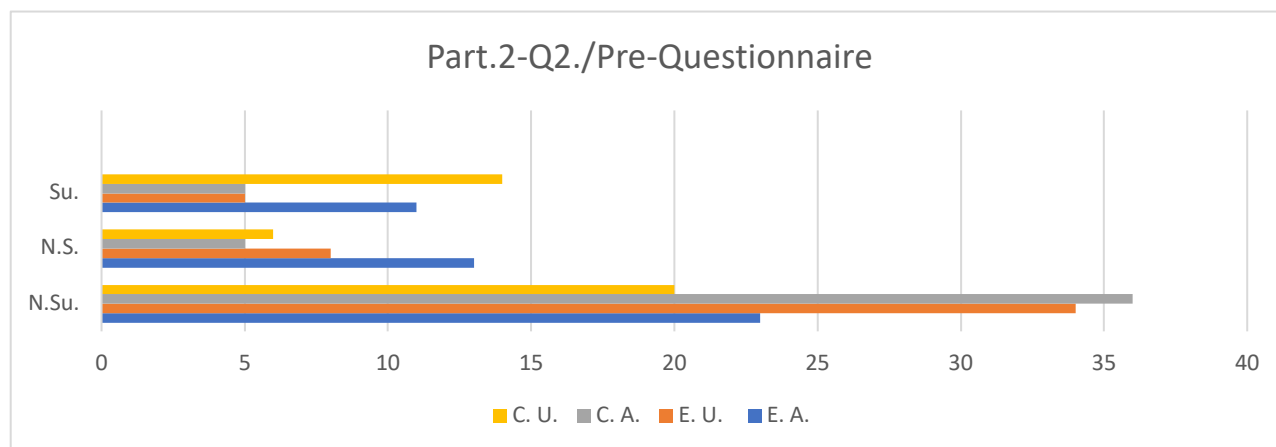
Table 35: Percentage results for Part 2 Q 1/ pre- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre- Questionnaire					Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/ Q. 1 "...I didn't know you <u>drink</u> ."							
C.U.	Total No. of 40 Students		Raw Numbers		15	13	12
			Percentages		37%	33%	30%
C.A.	Total No. of 46 Students		Raw Numbers		17	12	17
			Percentages		37%	26%	37%
E.U.	Total No. of 47 Students		Raw Numbers		19	9	19
			Percentages		41%	19%	40%
E.A.	Total No. of 47 Students		Raw Numbers		21	6	20
			Percentages		45%	13%	42%

The overall results for Part 2/ Q 1. "...I didn't know you drink." show that the Control Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 37%, found the metaphor suitable. The results for the Control Advanced group at 37% found the underlined metaphor suitable, and 37% found it unsuitable. Similar results were found in the experimental groups; the Experimental Upper-

Intermediate group results show that the answers mostly fell between 41% for the underlined metaphor being suitable and 40% finding the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The results of the Experimental advanced group at 45% found the underlined metaphor suitable (see Table 35).

Results for Part 2 Q2/pre-questionnaire



Bar Chart 20: Results for Part 2 Q1 in the pre-questionnaire for all groups.

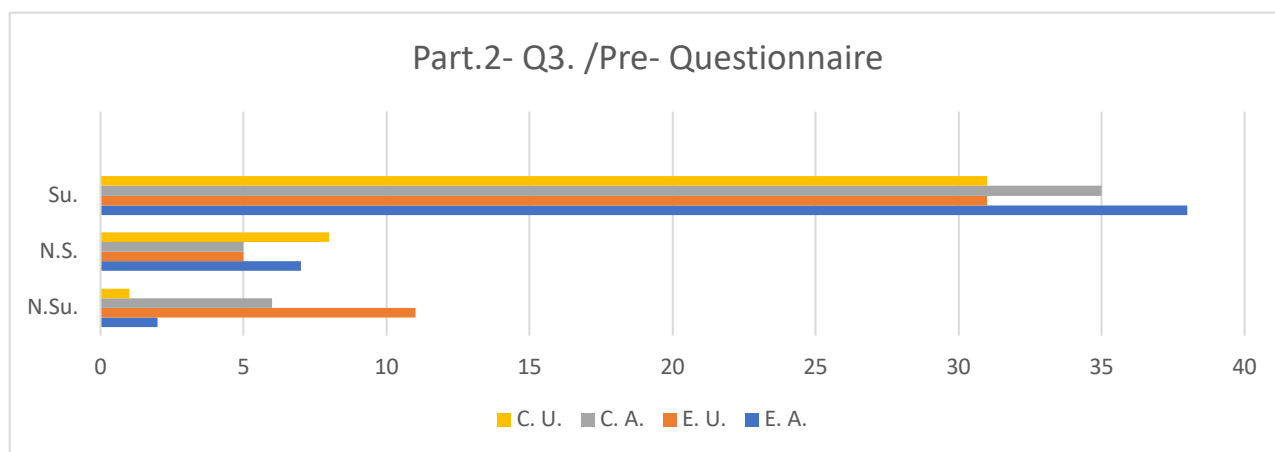
Table 36: Percentage results for Part 2 Q2/ pre- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data.

Pre-Questionnaire								
Part 2/ Q 2. "...I have a terrible headache. Where are my <i>drugs</i> ..."						Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
C.U.	Total	No.	of	4	Raw Numbers	14	6	20
	Students			0	Percentages	35%	15%	50%
C.A.	Total	No.	of	4	Raw Numbers	5	5	36
	Students			6	Percentages	11%	11%	78%
E.U.	Total	No.	of	4	Raw Numbers	5	8	34
	Students			7	Percentages	11%	17%	72%
E.A.	Total	No.	of	4	Raw Numbers	11	13	23
	Students			7	Percentages	45%	13%	42%

The overall results for Part 2/ Q 2 "...I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs..." for the Control Upper- Intermediate group show that a majority 50% found the metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 78%, found the underlined

metaphor unsuitable. The results for The Experimental Upper-intermediate group results show that a majority, 72%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The Experimental Advanced group show that 45% found the underlined metaphor suitable and 42% found it unsuitable. (see Table 36).

Results for Part 2 Q3/pre-questionnaire



Bar Chart 21: Results for Part 2 Q3 in the pre-questionnaire for all groups.

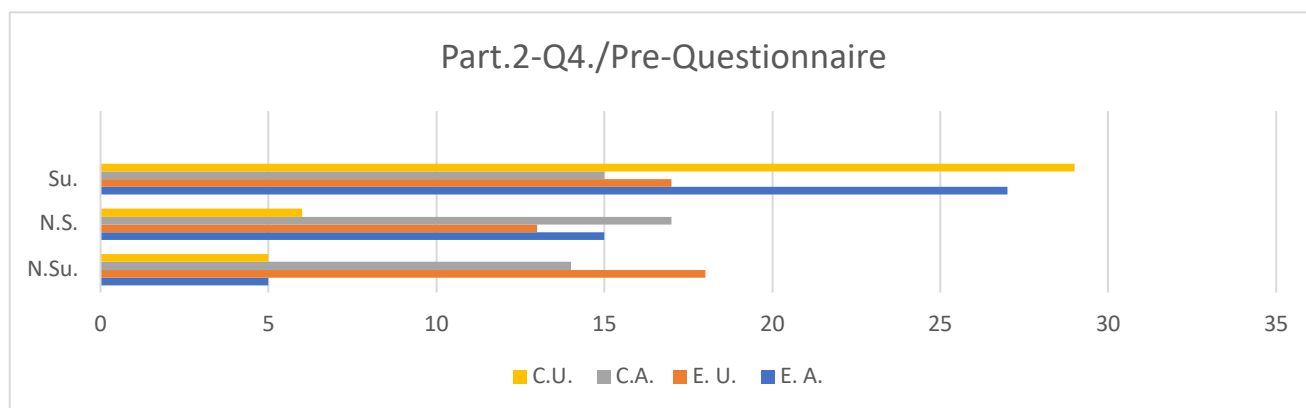
Table 37: Percentage results for Part 2 Q3/ pre-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre- Questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/ Q.3 "...I think she is nice, easy to talk to, and very <u>simple</u> ."						
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	31	8	1
			Percentages	77%	20%	3%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	35	5	6
			Percentages	76%	11%	13%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	31	5	11
			Percentages	66%	11%	23%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	38	7	2
			Percentages	81%	15%	4%

The overall results for Part 2/ Q 3 "...I think she is nice, easy to talk to, and very simple." for the Control Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 77%, found the metaphor suitable. The

results for the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 76%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-intermediate group results show that a majority, 66%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The Experimental Advanced group show a majority, 81%, found the underlined metaphor suitable (see Table 37).

Results for Part 2 Q4/pre-questionnaire



Bar Chart 22:Results for Part 2 Q4. in the pre- questionnaire for all groups.

Table 38: Percentage results for Part 2 Q 4/ pre- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

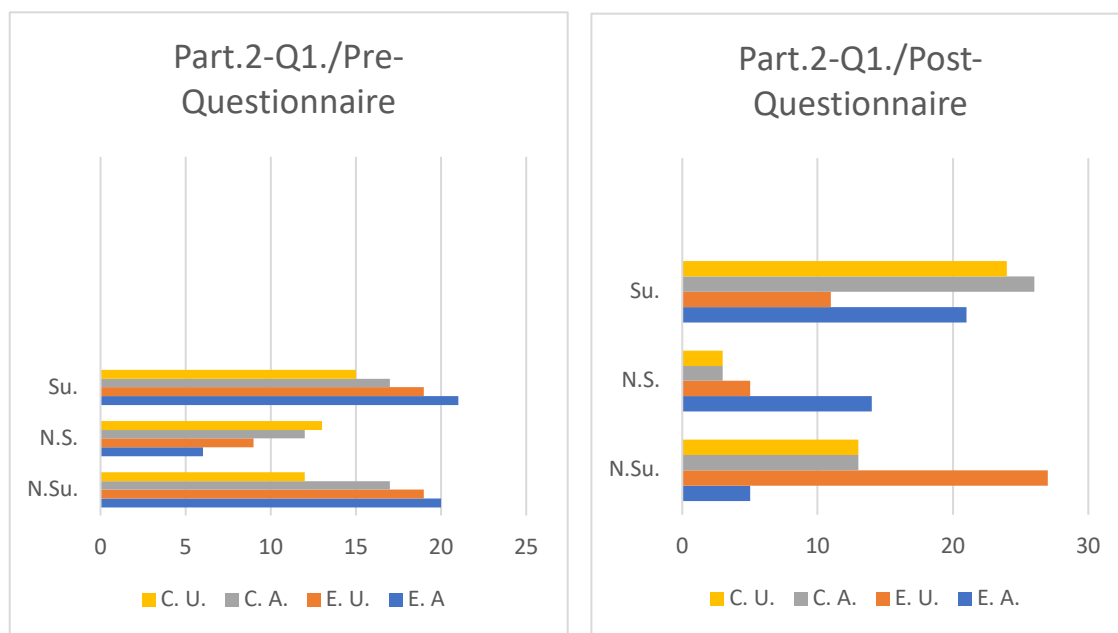
Pre-Questionnaire						
Part 2/Q.4 “...I have a <u>date</u> with Janet on Saturday.”				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	29	6	5
			Percentages	72%	15%	13%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	15	17	14
			Percentages	33%	37%	30%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	17	13	18
			Percentages	35%	27%	38%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	27	15	5
			Percentages	57%	32%	11%

The overall results for Part 2/ Q 4 "...I have a date with Janet on Saturday." for the Control Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 72%, found the metaphor suitable. The results for the advanced control group show that a majority, 37%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor

was suitable or not. The results for the Experimental upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 38%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The Experimental Advanced group results show that a majority, 57%, found the underlined metaphor suitable (see Table 38).

4.4.6.2. Rating Results in the post- questionnaire

Results for Part 2 Q1/pre- vs post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 23:. Results for Part 2 Q1 in the pre- vs post-questionnaires for all groups.

Table 39: Percentage results for Part 2 Q1/pre-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre- Questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/ Q 1						
C. U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	15	13	12
			Percentages	37%	33%	30%
C. A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	17	12	17
			Percentages	37%	26%	37%
E. U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	19	9	19
			Percentages	41%	19%	40%
E. A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	21	6	20
			Percentages	45%	13%	42%

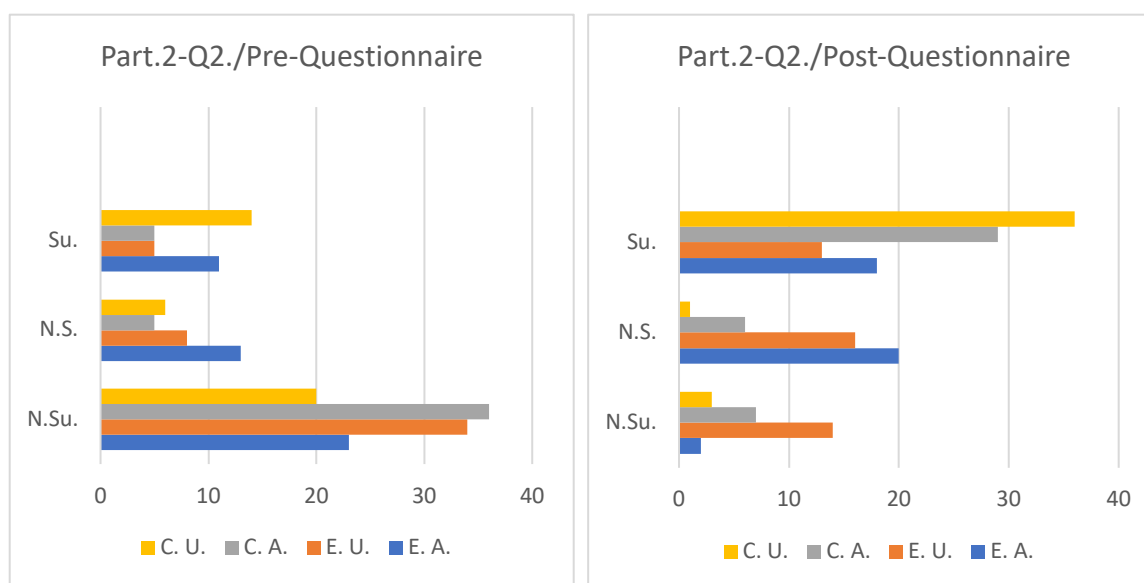
Table 40: Percentage results for Part 2 Q1/ post- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data.

Post-Questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/Q1						
C. U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	40	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	24	3	13
			<i>Percentages</i>	60%	7%	33%
C. A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	42	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	26	3	13
			<i>Percentages</i>	62%	7%	31%
E. U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	43	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	11	5	27
			<i>Percentages</i>	25%	12%	63%
E. A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	40	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	21	14	5
			<i>Percentages</i>	52%	35%	13%

The overall results for Part 2/Q 1 in the post-questionnaire for the Control Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 60%, found the metaphor suitable. The results for the Control advanced group show that a majority, 62%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-intermediate group results show that a majority, 63%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The Experimental Advanced group show a majority, 52%, found the underlined metaphor suitable (see Table 40). According to Bar Chart 23 the results for Part 2 Q 1 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for all groups differ; the control group results show that the Control Upper-intermediate groups show that a majority, 37%, found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire and 60% found it suitable in the post-questionnaire. The results for the Control Advanced group had two different views: 37% found the underlined metaphor suitable and 37% found it unsuitable; however, in the post-questionnaire the results differed and a majority, 62%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. In the pre-questionnaire the Experimental Upper-intermediate group, the results show that 41% of students in the pre-questionnaire found the metaphor suitable and 40% found it unsuitable;

however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed and a majority, 63%, of the Experimental Upper-intermediate group found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. For the Experimental Advanced group found the underlined metaphor suitable in both the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire.

Results for Part 2 Q2/pre- vs post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 24: Results for Part 2/Q 2 in the pre- vs post- questionnaires for all groups.

Table 41: Percentage results for Part 2 Q2/ pre- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-Questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/Q.2						
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	14	6	20
			Percentages	35%	15%	50%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	5	5	36
			Percentages	11%	11%	78%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	5	8	34
			Percentages	11%	17%	72%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	11	13	23
			Percentages	45%	13%	42%

Table 42: Percentage results for Part 2 Q2/post-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data.

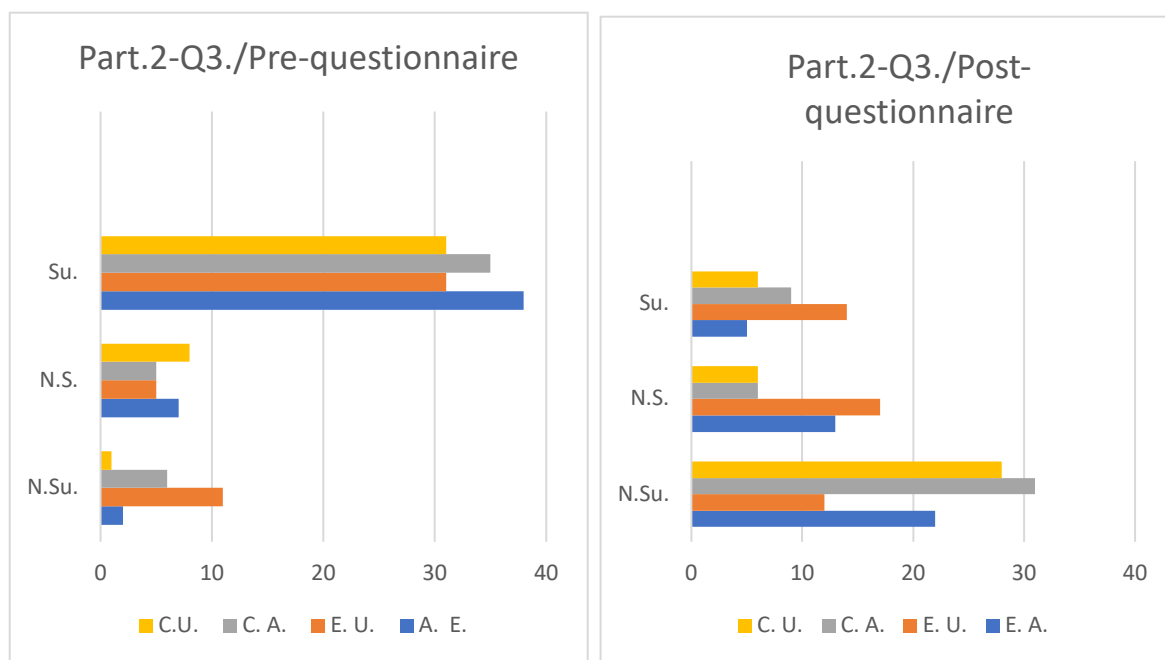
Post-Questionnaire Part 2/ Q 2				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
C.U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	40	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	36	1	3
			<i>Percentages</i>	90%	2%	8%
C.A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	42	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	29	6	7
			<i>Percentages</i>	69%	14%	17%
E.U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	43	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	13	16	14
			<i>Percentages</i>	30%	37%	33%
E.A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	40	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	18	20	2
			<i>Percentages</i>	45%	50%	5%

The overall results of Part 2/ Q 2 in the post-questionnaire for the Control Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 90%, found the metaphor suitable. The results for the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 69%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-intermediate group results show that a majority, 37%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The Advanced experimental group show that a majority, 50%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not (see Table 42). According to Bar Chart 24 the results for Part 2 Q2 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaires for all groups differ: 50% of the Control Upper-intermediate group found the underlined metaphor unsuitable in the pre- questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire, the results changed and a majority, 90%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results of the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 78% found the underlined metaphor unsuitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire the results differed and a majority, 69%, found the underlined metaphor suitable.

The results for Experimental groups show that 72% of the Experimental Upper- intermediate group found the underlined metaphor unsuitable, however, in the post-questionnaire, the results

changed and a majority, 37%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The Experimental Advanced group results show that 45% of students in the pre- questionnaire found the underlined metaphor unsuitable, but 50% in the post-questionnaire, as most of the students were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not.

Results for Part 2 Q3/pre- vs post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 25: Results for Part 2 Q 3 in the pre- vs post- questionnaires for all groups.

Table 43: Percentage results for Part 2 Q 3/ pre- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data.

Pre- questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/ Q3						
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	31	8	1
			Percentages	77%	20%	3%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	35	5	6
			Percentages	76%	11%	13%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	31	5	11
			Percentages	66%	11%	23%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	38	7	2
			Percentages	81%	15%	4%

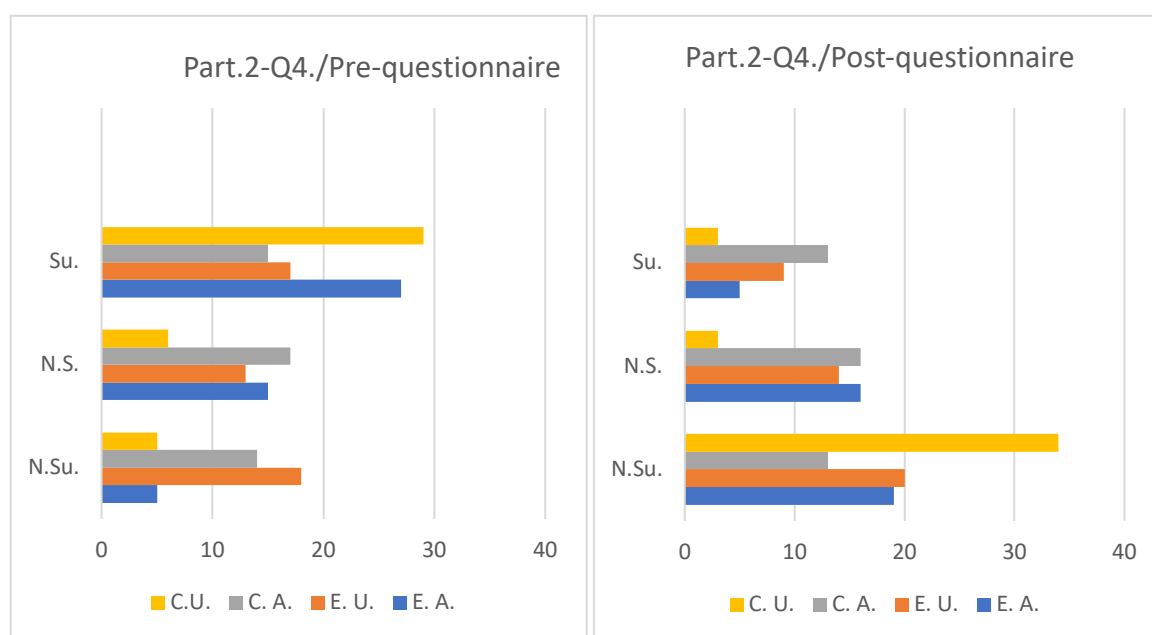
Table 44: Percentage results for Part 2 Q 2/post- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Post- questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/Q3						
C.U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	40	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	6	6	28
			<i>Percentages</i>	15%	15%	70%
C.A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	42	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	9	6	31
			<i>Percentages</i>	20%	13%	67%
E.U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	43	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	14	17	12
			<i>Percentages</i>	33%	39%	28%
E.A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	40	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	5	13	22
			<i>Percentages</i>	12%	33%	55%

The overall results for Part 2/Q3 in the post-questionnaire for the Control Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 70%, found the metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Control Advanced show that a majority, 67%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 39%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The Experimental Advanced group results show that a majority, 55%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable (see Table 44). According to Bar-Chart 25 the results for Part 2 Q3 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for all groups differ; 77% of the Control Upper-Intermediate group found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed and a majority, 70%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results for the Control Advanced group show that 76% found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post questionnaire the results differed and a majority, 67%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The results for experimental groups show that the majority; 66% of the Experimental upper-intermediate group found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre- questionnaire,

however, in the post-questionnaire, the results changed and a majority, 39%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The Experimental Advanced group results show that 81% of students in pre-questionnaire found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire, most of the students, 55%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable.

Results for Part 2 Q4/pre- vs post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 26: Results for Part 2 Q4. in the pre- vs post-questionnaires for all groups.

Table 45: Percentage results for Part 2 Q4 / pre-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

Pre-questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2 / Q4						
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	29	6	5
			Percentages	72%	15%	13%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	46	Raw Numbers	15	17	14
			Percentages	33%	37%	30%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	17	13	18
			Percentages	35%	27%	38%

Pre-questionnaire						
Part 2 / Q4				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
E.A.	Total No. of Students	47	Raw Numbers	27	15	5
			Percentages	57%	32%	11%

Table 46: Percentage results for Part 2 Q4/post-questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

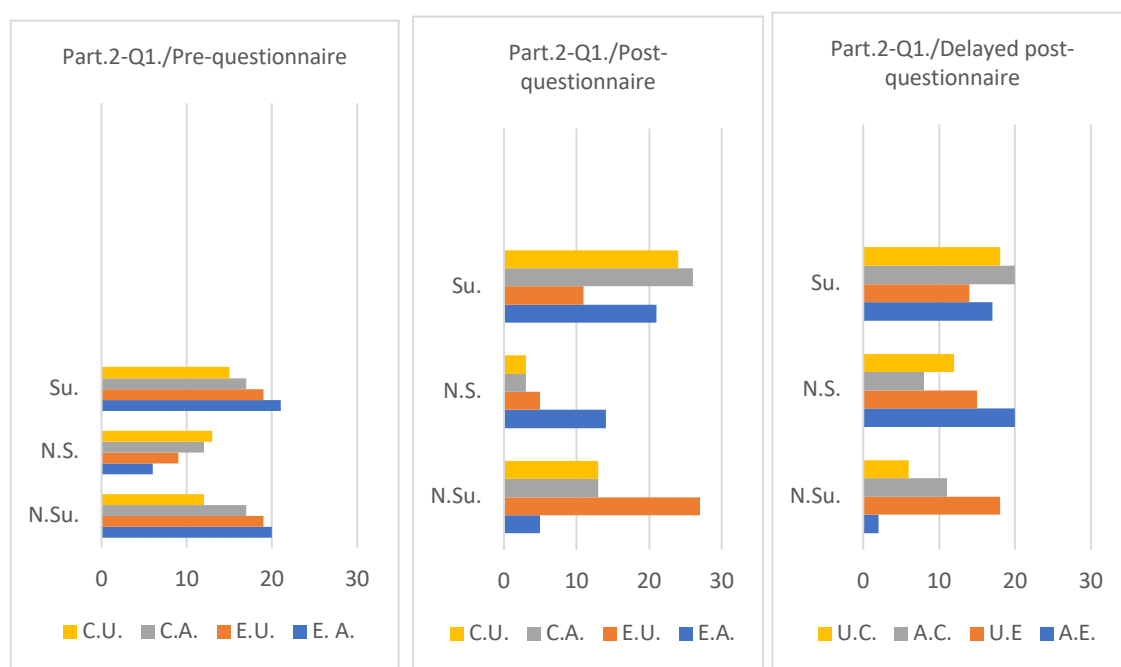
Post- questionnaire						
Part 2 / Q4				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
C.U.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	3	3	34
			Percentages	7%	8%	85%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	42	Raw Numbers	13	16	13
			Percentages	31%	38%	31%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	43	Raw Numbers	9	14	20
			Percentages	21%	33%	46%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	40	Raw Numbers	5	16	19
			Percentages	12%	40%	48%

The overall results for Part 2/ Q4 in the post-questionnaire for the Control Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 85%, found the metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Advanced control show that a majority, 38%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The results for the Experimental Upper-intermediate group show that a majority, 46%, found the underlined metaphor was not suitable. The Experimental Advanced group results show that a majority, 48%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable (see Table 45). According to Bar Chart 26 the results for Part 2 Q4 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for all groups differ: 72% of the Control Upper-intermediate found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed and a majority, 85%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Control Advanced group in the pre- and post-questionnaires are similar: 37% of students were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not in the pre-questionnaire, and 38% in the post-questionnaire. The

Experimental Upper-intermediate group results are similar in the pre- and post-questionnaires, they show that 38% of students in the pre-questionnaire found the metaphor unsuitable and 46% in the post-questionnaire. The results for the Experimental Advanced group show that 57% found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, while in the post-questionnaire most of the students, 48%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable.

4.4.6.3. Rating Results in the Delayed post- questionnaire

Results for Part 2 Q1/pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 27: Results for Part 2 Q1 in the pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires for all groups.

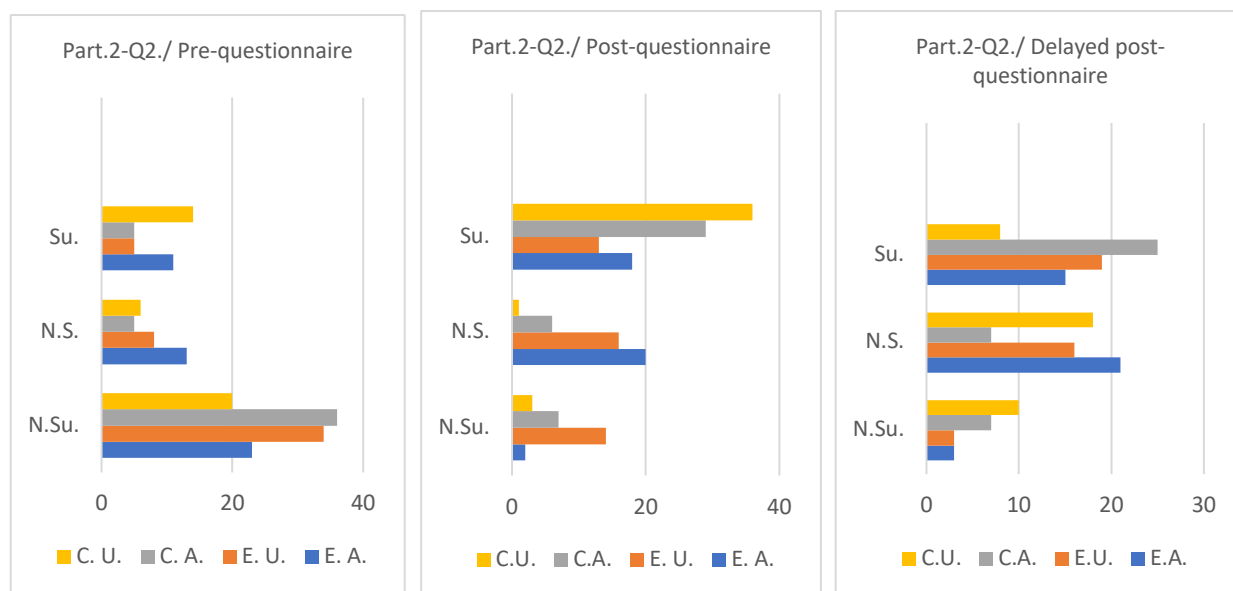
Table 47: Percentage results for Part 2 Q1/Delayed post- questionnaires for all groups including raw numbers from data

Delayed post- questionnaire Part 2 / Q1				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
C.U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	36	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	18	12	6
			<i>Percentages</i>	50%	33%	17%
C.A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	39	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	20	8	11
			<i>Percentages</i>	51%	21%	28%
E.U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	38	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	14	15	18
			<i>Percentages</i>	30%	32%	38%
E.A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	39	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	17	20	2
			<i>Percentages</i>	44%	51%	5%

The overall results for Part 2/ Q 1 in the delayed post-questionnaire for the Control Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 50%, found the metaphor suitable. The results for the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 51%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 38%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The Experimental Advanced group results show that a majority, 51%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not (see Table 47). According to Bar Chart 27 the results for Part 2 Q 1 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaires for all groups differ: the results for the Control Upper-Intermediate groups show that a majority, 37%, found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire and 60% found it suitable in the post-questionnaire. In the pre-questionnaire the control group results show that the Control Advanced group had two different views: 37% found the underlined metaphor suitable and 37% found it unsuitable, however, in the post questionnaire the results differed and a majority, 62%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. For the Experimental Upper- Intermediate group, the results show that 41% of students in the pre-questionnaire found the metaphor suitable and 40% found it unsuitable, however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed, and a majority, 63%,

of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The Experimental Advanced group found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire. When comparing the results from the post-questionnaire with those of the delayed post-questionnaire they show that for three groups, Control Advanced group, Control Upper-Intermediate group, and Experimental Upper-Intermediate group, the results did not change. However, the results for the Experimental Advanced group changed as 51% of students were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not.

Results for Part 2 Q 2 /pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 28: Results for Part 2 Q2. in the pre- post & delayed post-questionnaires for all groups.
Table 48: Percentage results for Part 2 Q2/ delayed post- questionnaire for all groups including raw numbers from data

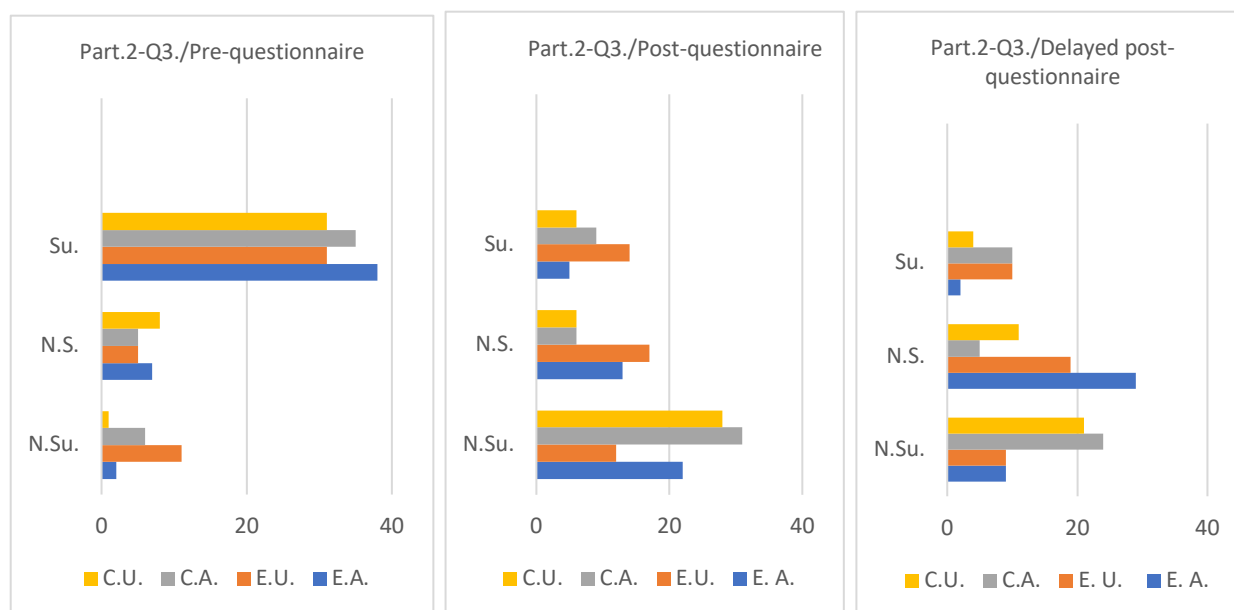
Delayed post-questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2 / Q 2						
C.U.	Total No. of Students	36	Raw Numbers	8	18	10
			Percentages	22%	50%	28%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	25	7	7
			Percentages	64%	18%	18%

E.U.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	38	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	19	16	3
			<i>Percentages</i>	50%	42%	8%
E.A.	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	39	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	15	21	3
			<i>Percentages</i>	38%	54%	8%

The overall results for Part 2/Q2 in the delayed post-questionnaire for the Control Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 50%, were not sure if the metaphor was suitable or not suitable. The results for the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 64%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results for the Experimental Upper- Intermediate group show that a majority, 50%, found the underlined metaphor was suitable. The Experimental Advanced group results show that a majority, 54%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not (see Table 48). According to Bar Chart 28 the results for Part 2 Q 2 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for all groups differ: 50% of the Control Upper- Intermediate group found the underlined metaphor unsuitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed and a large majority, 90%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The Control Advanced group results show that 78% found the underlined metaphor unsuitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire the results differed and a majority, 69%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 72% of students in the pre-questionnaire found the metaphor unsuitable, however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed and a majority, 37%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The majority of the Experimental Advanced group 45% found the underlined metaphor unsuitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire 50% of the students were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The results of the post-questionnaire when compared

with the results of the delayed post-questionnaire show that for three groups, Control Advanced and Upper-Intermediate groups, Experimental Advanced group, the results did not change. However, the results for the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group changed as 50% of the students found the underlined metaphor suitable.

Results for Part 2 Q 3 / pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 29: Results for Part 2 Q3 in the pre- post & delayed post- questionnaires for all groups.

Table 49: Percentage results for Part 2 Q3/delayed post- questionnaires for all groups including raw numbers from data

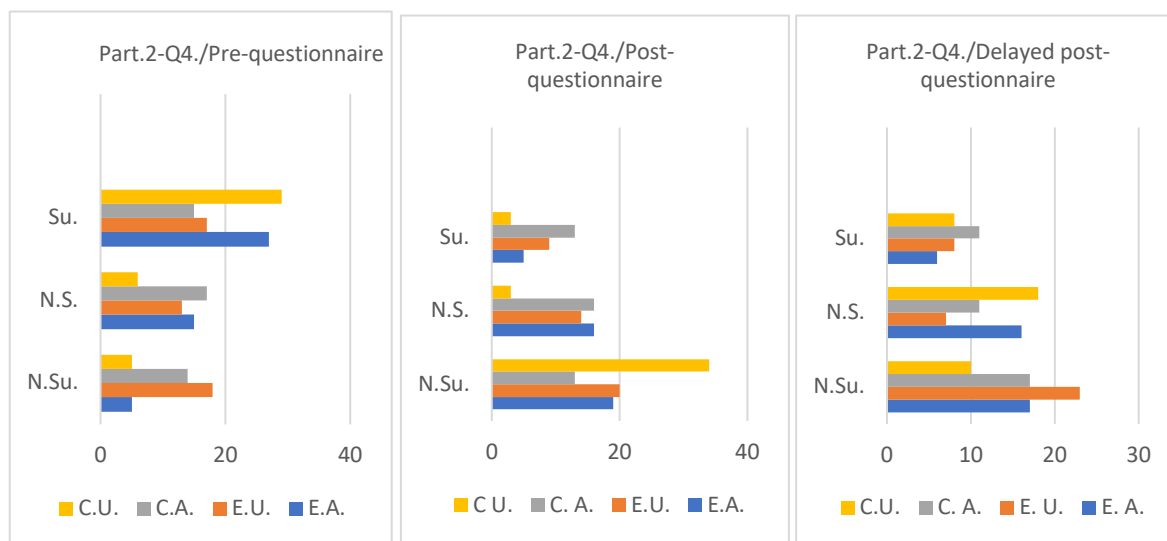
Delayed post- questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2 / Q 3						
C.U.	Total No. of Students	36	Raw Numbers	4	11	21
			Percentages	22%	50%	28%
C.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	10	5	24
			Percentages	26%	13%	61%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	38	Raw Numbers	10	19	9
			Percentages	26%	50%	24%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	2	29	9
			Percentages	5%	72%	23%

The overall results for Part 2/Q3 in the post-questionnaire for the Control Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 50%, were not sure if the metaphor was suitable or not. The results for the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 61%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 50%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The Experimental Advanced group results show that a majority, 72%, were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not (see Table 49). According to Bar Chart 29 the results for Part 2 Q3 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for all groups differ: 77% of the Control Upper- Intermediate group found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed and a majority, 70%, found the underlined metaphor suitable. The Control Advanced group results show 76% of the Control Advanced group found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire the results differed and a majority, 67%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group show that 66% students in the pre-questionnaire found the metaphor suitable, however, in the post-questionnaire the results changed and a majority, 39% were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. The results for the Experimental Advanced group show that the majority, 81% found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, however, in the post-questionnaire most of the students, 55%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable.

When comparing the results of the post-questionnaire with the results of the delayed post-questionnaire, they show that for two groups, Control Advanced group and Experimental Upper-Intermediate group, the results did not change. However, the results for the Control

Upper-Intermediate group and Experimental Advanced group changed as the students were not sure if they found the underlined metaphor suitable or not: 50% of the Control Upper-Intermediate group and 72% of the Experimental Advanced group.

Results for Part 2 Q4/pre-, post- and delayed post-questionnaires



Bar Chart 30: Results for Part 2 Q4 in the pre-, post- & delayed post-questionnaires for all groups.

Table 50: Percentage results for Part 2 Q 4/Delayed post-questionnaire.

Delayed post-questionnaire				Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
Part 2/Q 4						
C.U.	Total No. of Students	36	Raw Numbers	8	18	10
			Percentages	22%	50%	28%
C. A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	11	11	17
			Percentages	28%	28%	44%
E.U.	Total No. of Students	38	Raw Numbers	8	7	23
			Percentages	21%	18%	61%
E.A.	Total No. of Students	39	Raw Numbers	6	16	17
			Percentages	15%	41%	44%

The overall results for Part 2/Q4 in the post- questionnaire for the Control Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 50%, were not sure if the metaphor was suitable or not. The results for the Control Advanced group show that a majority, 44%, found the underlined metaphor

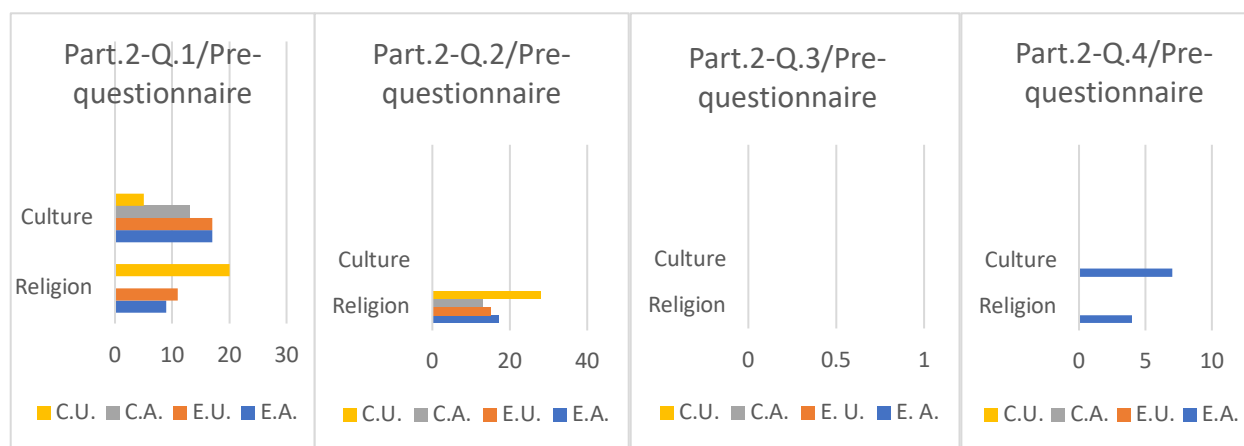
unsuitable. The results for the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group show that a majority, 61%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The Experimental Advanced group results show that a majority, 44%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable (see Table 50). According to Bar Chart 30 the results for Part 2 Q4 in the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for all groups differ: 72% of the Control Upper- Intermediate group found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre- questionnaire, however, in the post- questionnaire the results changed and a majority, 85%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable. The results for the Control Advanced group in the pre- and post-questionnaires are similar: 37% of students were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not in the pre-questionnaire, and 38% in the post questionnaire. The results for the Experimental Upper-Intermediate group are similar in the pre-and post-questionnaires, they show that 38% of students in the pre-questionnaire found the metaphor unsuitable and 46% in the post-questionnaire. The Experimental Advanced group results show 57% found the underlined metaphor suitable in the pre-questionnaire, while in the post-questionnaire most of the students, 48%, found the underlined metaphor unsuitable.

Comparing the results of the post-questionnaire with the results of the delayed post-questionnaire shows that for two groups, Control Upper-intermediate and Control Advanced groups changed as 50% of the Control Upper-Intermediate group and 44% of the Control Advanced group were not sure if the underlined metaphor was suitable or not. However, the results for the Experimental Upper- Intermediate and Advanced groups did not change.

4.4.6.4. Presenting Justifications of suitability choices

This section includes the explanations students wrote to justify their selections of choices in the suitability task. From these explanations I arrived at two main themes, religion and culture, that most explanations fall under.

Phase 1: Pre- questionnaire results



Bar Chart 31: Themes found in Part 2 in the pre- questionnaire for all groups.

Table 51: Percentage results of themes in Part 2/ pre- questionnaire for all groups

Pre-Questionnaire		C.U.	C.A.	E.U.	E.A.
Q.1	Religion	0%	0%	11%	29%
	Culture	0%	0%	22%	30%
Q.2	Religion	0%	0%	43%	30%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	0%
Q.3	Religion	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	9%
Q.4	Religion	0%	0%	0%	4%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	16%

Religion

Phase 1: Pre-questionnaire results

Q.1 "... I didn't know you **drink**."

The results in Table 51 show that 11% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate groups, and 29% of the Experimental Advanced group, found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons, for example:

"It is forbidden." [St. 5/ U. E.]

"It is not allowed in Islam." [St. 33/ E. U.]

"Alcohol is forbidden in Islam." [St.6/ A. E.]

Q.2 *"...I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs, I left them on this table last night?..."*

The results show that 43% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate groups, and 30% of the Experimental Advanced group, found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons (see Table 51), for example:

"It is forbidden." [St. 14/ E. U.]

"It is forbidden." [St. 22/ E. A.]

Q.4 *"...I have a date with Janet on Saturday."*

In Table 49 the results show that 4% of the experimental advanced group found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons, for example:

"It's not allowed in Islam to romantically date." [St. 28/ E. A.]

Culture

Phase 1: Pre-questionnaire results

Q.1 *"... I didn't know you drink."*

The results show that 22% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate groups, and 30% of the Experimental Advanced group, found this expression unsuitable for cultural reasons (see Table 51), for example:

"It doesn't go with our culture." [St. 5/ U. E.]

"It ok for a man not a woman." [St.29/U.E.]

"It's not acceptable to drink alcohol in our culture." [St. 35/ A. E.]

"It is not part of our culture." [St. 13/ A. E.]

Q.3 *"...I think she is nice, easy to talk, and very **simple**."*

The results in Table 39 show that 9% of the Experimental Advanced group were unsure if the expression was suitable or not for cultural reasons, for example.

"In English it's offensive." [St. 35/ A. E.]

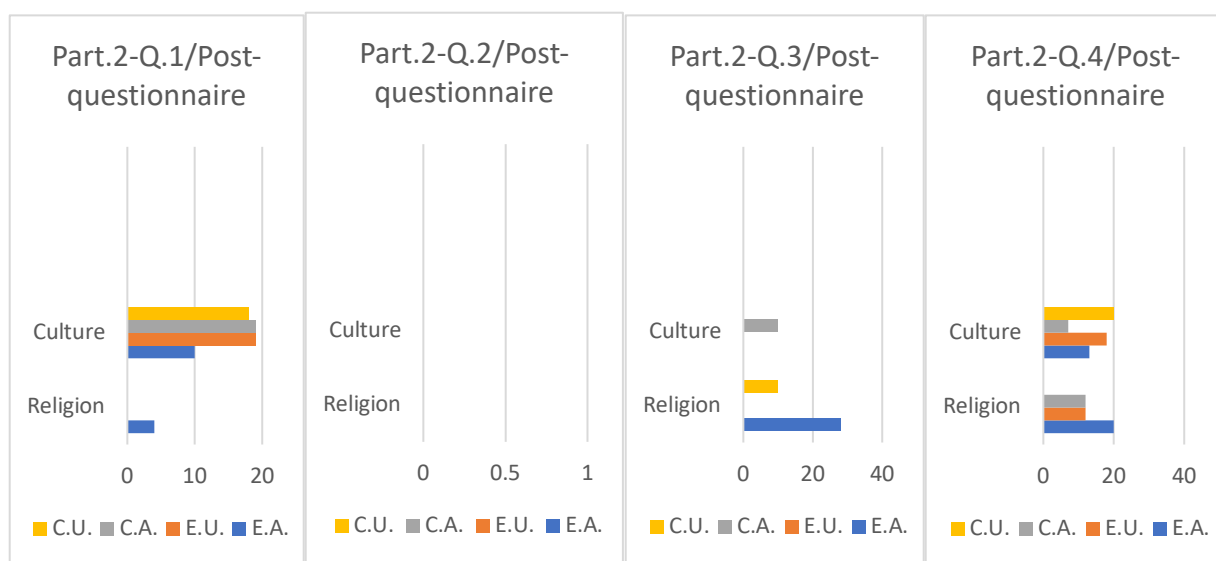
Q.4 *"...I have a **date** with Janet on Saturday."*

The results show that 16% of the Experimental Advanced group found this expression unsuitable for cultural reasons (see Table 51), for example:

"It's against our culture and traditions." [St. 11/ A. E.]

"It's not acceptable in our culture." [St. 36/ A. E.]

Phase 2: Post-questionnaire results



Bar Chart 32: Themes found in Part 2 in the post- questionnaire for all groups.

Table 52:.. Percentage results for the themes in Part 2/ post- questionnaire for all groups.

Post- questionnaire		C.U.	C.A.	E.U.	E.A.
Q.1	Religion	0%	0%	0%	4%
	Culture	0%	0%	37%	29%
Q.2	Religion	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	0%
Q.3	Religion	0%	0%	0%	38%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	10%
Q.4	Religion	0%	0%	12%	32%
	Culture	0%	0%	38%	20%

Religion

Phase 2: Post-questionnaire results

Q.1 “...I have a **date** with Janet on Saturday.”

The results in Table 50 show that 4% of the Experimental Advanced group found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons, for example:

“Not allowed in Islam.” [St. 13/ U. E.]

Q.3 "...I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs, I left them on this table last night?..."

The results show that 38% of the Experimental Advanced group found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons (see Table 52), for example:

"Not acceptable in my religion." [St. 29/ A. E.]

"Not allowed in Islam." [St. 15/ A. E.]

Q.4 "... I didn't know you drink."

In Table 50 the results show that 12% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate level groups, and 32% of the Experimental Advanced level group, found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons, for example;

"Not allowed in Islam." [St. 18/ E. U.]

"It is forbidden." [St. 8/ A. E.]

"It is forbidden." [St. 18/ E. A.]

1. Culture

Phase 2: Post-questionnaire results

Q.1 "...I have a date with Janet on Saturday."

The results in Table 50 show that 37% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate level students, and 29% of the Experimental Advanced group, found this expression unsuitable for cultural reasons, for example:

"For men it is ok, for women NO!" [St. 30/ E. U.]

"Not part of our culture." [St. 11/ A. E.]

"It doesn't go with our culture." [St. 25/ A. E.]

"It's only acceptable for men to romantically date." [St. 10/ A. E.]

Q.3 *"...I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs, I left them on this table last night?..."*

The results show that 10% of the Experimental Advanced group found this expression unsuitable for cultural reasons (see Table 52), for example:

"Not in our culture" [St. 9/ E. A.]

Q.4 *"... I didn't know you drink."*

The results show that 38% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate level groups, and 20% of the Experimental Advanced level group, found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons (see Table 52), for example:

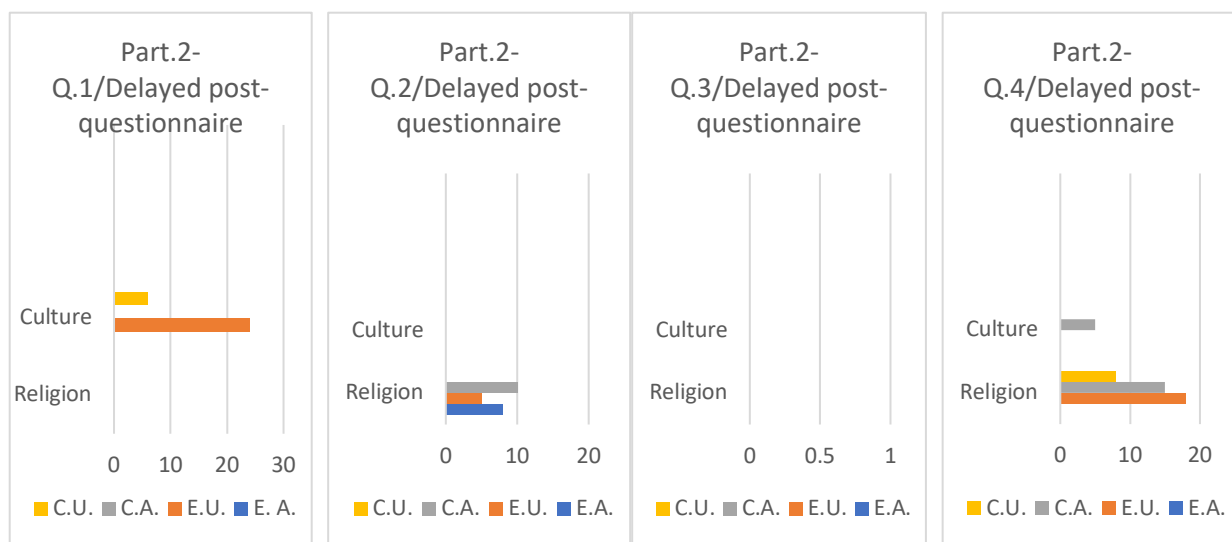
"Against our culture." [St. 14/ U. E.]

"It's part of Western culture." [St. 26/ A. E.]

"Not in my culture, it is part of English culture." [St. 3/ U. E.]

"In their culture it is acceptable, but not in ours." [St.18/A.E.]

Phase 3: Delayed post-questionnaire results



Bar Chart 33: Themes found in Part 2 in the delayed post- questionnaire for all groups.

Table 53: Percentage results of themes in Part 2/ delayed post- questionnaires for all groups.

Delayed post-questionnaire		C.U.	C.A.	E.U.	E.A.
Q.1	Religion	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Culture	0%	0%	24%	6%
Q.2	Religion	0%	0%	5%	18%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	0%
Q.3	Religion	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	0%
Q.4	Religion	0%	0%	26%	15%
	Culture	0%	0%	0%	5%

Religion

Phase 3: Delayed post-questionnaire results

Q.2 "...I have a terrible headache. Where are my **drugs**, I left them on this table last night?..."

The results in Table 53 show that 5% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate groups, and 18% of the Experimental Advanced group, found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons, for example;

"Forbidden in Islam." [St. 21/ E. U.]

"Not allowed in Islam." [St. 2/ A. E.]

"It is not allowed in Islam." [St.13/A.E.]

Q.4 *"... I didn't know you **drink**."*

In Table 53 the results show that 26% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate groups, and 15% of the Experimental Advanced level, found this expression unsuitable for religious reasons, for example:

"It's not allowed in Islam." [St. 6/ E. U.]

"Muslims do not drink." [St. 17/ U. E.]

"It's not allowed in Islam." [St. 2/ A. E.]

Culture

Q.1 *"...I have a **date** with Janet on Saturday."*

The results show that 24% of the Experimental Upper-Intermediate groups found this expression unsuitable for cultural reasons (see Table 53), for example:

"It is not suitable in our culture." [St. 11/ E. U.]

In addition, the results show that 6% of the Experimental Advanced level groups found this expression unsuitable for women but suitable for men (see Table 53), for example:

"Girls are not allowed to date, but its ok for boys." [St. 23. /A. E.]

Q.4 *"... I didn't know you **drink**."*

In Table 53 the results show that 5% of the Experimental Advanced level group found this expression unsuitable for cultural reasons, for example:

“It a Westerner’s style.” [St. 5/ A. E.]

In summary, the outcomes of the data tools employed in this study were provided in this chapter, which included a background information questionnaire, focus group interviews, and questionnaires (pre- post- and delayed post-). According to the results of the background information questionnaire, the media (TV, social media), schools, and overseas workers all played a significant role in Kuwait. While these findings contribute to a greater understanding of English as a language and the cultural package that comes with it, participants' outside-of-class exposure to English is still limited. When students were asked to use metaphors to explain what English means to them, the results of focus group interviews revealed two contrasting attitudes about the language. In all groups, there were positive and negative attitudes; poor attitudes about English could be one of several factors affecting metaphor learning. Type 6 metaphors are difficult, according to the results of the culture-based task in the focus group interviews. Analogical reasoning, on the other hand, helped some students overcome their difficulties and raise their metaphor awareness. Furthermore, the results of the questionnaires differed; the pre-questionnaire results of the control and experimental groups show that all types of English metaphors were difficult to understand. In comparison to the control groups, who still struggled with most metaphors after the teaching intervention, the experimental groups' results show a considerable increase in understanding different metaphors following the teaching intervention.

Students in the experimental group developed cultural awareness while becoming more aware of different metaphors. The following part goes deeper into the key findings of the chapter.

Chapter 5. Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the study results reported in the previous chapter in light of existing literature in order to answer the research questions which provided the academic rationale for this research. The overall aim of this study, as discussed in Chapters 1 and 3, is to examine how Kuwaiti EFL learners make sense of different types of metaphors. A clearer understanding of how EFL Kuwaiti students make sense of different types of metaphors can provide valuable insights into metaphor sense-making in EFL contexts. Such insights have considerable weight when considering the importance of learning/ teaching metaphors to EFL learners of English. This project has important practical implications for language educators in general and for English language teachers at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training in particular. It also provides future academic researchers in the field of EFL learning/ teaching with an opportunity to read about the sense-making of different types of metaphors by EFL learners. I return to the study's contribution and implications for educational stakeholders in Chapter 6.

As previously outlined and explained in Chapter 3, this mixed methods research was conducted using qualitative and quantitative methods, students' background information and pre-, post and delayed-post questionnaires, as well as focus group interviews which were conducted at the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training in the College of Business Studies within a period of three consecutive weeks As seen in Chapter 4, the thematic analysis

and quantitative analysis of the data collected led to the emergence of five key findings (see Section 3.8.4.):

- Finding 1: The role of proficiency in EFL instruction
- Finding 2: Levels of metaphor difficulty for EFL Kuwaiti learners
- Finding 3: To teach or not to teach metaphors in the EFL classroom
- Finding 4: The effect of L1 values on L2 metaphor suitability
- Finding 5: The effect of retention in learning/ teaching metaphors

The current discussion is an attempt to offer interpretative insights into the results presented in Chapter 4. The discussion in sections 5.2– 5.6 is loosely structured in relation to the five key findings mentioned above. It is important to note that the key findings answer the main research questions discussed in Chapters 2 & 3.

5.2 Finding 1: Exploring levels of metaphor difficulty for EFL Kuwaiti learners

This section engages with whether there are levels of metaphor difficulty encountered by EFL Kuwaiti learners in this study. As such, it addresses the first research question presented in Chapter 1:

What strategies do Kuwaiti EFL learners use to make sense of English metaphors?

The literature suggests that students face certain difficulties when making sense of different types of metaphors. For example, Charteris-Black (2002) and Littlemore (2003a) agree that, on the one hand, it is easy for EFL learners to interpret Type 1 metaphors as they are universal and exist in most languages. On the other hand, they both believe that it seems difficult for EFL learners to interpret Type 6 metaphors (that are linguistically and conceptually different in both

L1 and L2) due to cultural specifications. In addition, Charteris-Black (2002) argues that it is rather confusing for EFL learners to interpret Type 3 metaphors that are linguistically similar in L1 and L2 but conceptually different. That said, the results of the pre-questionnaire collected before the teaching intervention for all groups, control and experimental, at all levels, advanced & upper-intermediate, indicate that all groups encountered difficulties in making sense of all types of metaphors, from with the most universal to the most culture-based. These findings disagree with some of Charteris-Black's (2002) and Littlemore's (2003a) findings. As mentioned in 5.1 regarding Type 1 metaphors, most students gave a word-for-word meaning in their interpretation (see Bar Charts 4 & 7 & 10). This could be attributed to the fact they are used to memorizing vocabulary lists and using literal or word-for-word meanings when interpreting English vocabulary (for more information see 5.3). In other words, relying on the grammar-translation method for teaching English, in the context of this study, has had a significant impact on learners' ability to go beyond the literal meaning of metaphors, including universal ones.

Another difference found in the results of this study with regard to Type 3 metaphors is that the difficulty in making sense of Type 3 metaphors is reduced when a student's proficiency level in L2 is high (see Bar Chart 17). From the results of the pre-questionnaire, it was apparent that Type 3 metaphor might be confusing for EFL learners (Bar Charts 14 & 17). However, the results of the post-questionnaire reveal that it was not confusing for most of the advanced level group who gave the conceptual meaning in their interpretations, unlike the upper-intermediate group who continued to find it difficult. The different results found in how the advanced and the upper intermediate experimental groups made sense of Type 3 metaphors could be attributed to differences in proficiency level as seen in Bar Chart 14.

In addition, one of the most important observations in the results concerning Type 6 metaphor is that some students interpreted English Type 6 metaphors by providing an equivalent Type 4 Arabic metaphor, a task which can be described as cognitively demanding and linguistically advanced. Type 6 metaphors appeared in a few students' answers after the teaching intervention. Some students interpreted a Type 6 English metaphor with an equivalent Type 4 Arabic metaphor that is conceptually similar to the English metaphor but linguistically different. While the use of this advanced strategy remains rather marginal in comparison to the usage of other strategies, it remains a key observation in the results and highlights the potential of what students can do and achieve with more instruction on metaphor. Here is an example of how this strategy was used in the data:

Q.15 “..Upside down..”

رأساً على عقب (English translation: Head over heels)

This Arabic metaphor is not linguistically similar to the English metaphor “upside down” but conceptually they are similar and carry the same connotations. It is worth mentioning that Type 4 metaphors that are conceptually similar in L1 and L2 but linguistically different in the languages are discussed and presented in Charteris-Black as one of his metaphor types which were used as a tool to test Malay students' metaphor awareness in a closed multiple-choice questionnaire. Since his questionnaire design did not allow the students to input their own interpretations freely, Type 4 metaphors did not emerge in his findings (Charteris- Black, 2002). That is to say, the emergence of Type 4 metaphor as part of a sense-making strategy in this study only became possible because I allowed the students to write down their interpretations without limiting their options with a fixed list of choices that they had to select from. This methodological choice, while

having its own challenges, did indeed allow for the exploration of a variety of interpretations. By allowing students to freely write their own responses to describe how they made sense of metaphors, I enabled them to explore the links between their L1 and L2; as such, I agree with Littlemore (2010) that students' ability to understand and use metaphors in their L1 is related to their ability to understand and use metaphors in L2. In this case, L1 is a resource they can draw on, rather than a barrier they need to avoid. Nonetheless, the results agree with both Charteris-Black (2002) and Littlemore (2003a), that Type 6 metaphors are difficult to interpret. This was apparent in my findings as most students resorted to using a contextual meaning strategy in order to make sense of these culture-based metaphors which could reflect their lack of exposure to English language culture in the EFL classroom. As mentioned in 5.1, teachers are restrained by the education authority and thus are governed by what skills to teach and time frame. Another factor might be learners' lack of exposure to the English language/ culture outside the EFL classroom, as indicated in the results of the background information questionnaire which reveal that EFL learners are exposed primarily to English language and culture inside the EFL classroom. Outside the EFL classroom, Kuwaiti learners use English language to communicate with domestic workers and with restaurant employees who speak English as a lingua franca, a variety that reflects different cultures and linguistic norms, including non-native ones (see 4.2.3). However, the findings of the post-questionnaire show that the teaching intervention broke the cycle of the traditional grammar-translation method and encouraged the learners to use cognitive thinking in interpreting the meaning of different metaphors. This suggests that learners' lack of exposure to English culture outside the classroom can be compensated by teaching metaphors in the

language classroom, which substantially entails teaching not only the target language, but also the target culture. This is a point I discuss further in the next section.

5.3 Finding 2: The role of proficiency in EFL instruction

Chapter 4 has indicated that learners' linguistic proficiency plays a major role in understanding how to make sense of different metaphors. As such, linguistic proficiency can be identified as a factor that affects metaphor learning in EFL. The following sections discuss the role of proficiency in the awareness task when students encountered different types of metaphors starting with Types 1, 3 & 6. Then it discusses the role of proficiency in the social acceptance task.

5.3.1 Role of proficiency level in the awareness task

The effect of proficiency level was not apparent in the pre-test for Type 1 metaphor where most students in all groups at all levels used similar strategies like word- for- word meaning to explain Type 1 metaphors present in the awareness task in the questionnaire (see Bar Charts 4 & Table 14). I suggest that the reason why students tend to select word-for-word meanings might be related to the way EFL students are taught in such environments. The style of teaching dictates that new words are taught as vocabulary lists, hence students are more or less accustomed to learning and memorizing any new phrases as they learn vocabulary lists. Evidence for this teaching practice was presented in 4.3.4 However, the results for the experimental groups reflect a noticeable change in the choice and selection of strategies used to interpret different types of metaphors present in the post-questionnaire, as well as a noticeable difference between the advanced and upper-intermediate experimental groups that might be attributed to differences

in proficiency level. Thus, it can be argued that after the teaching intervention the proficiency level clearly surfaced in the results of the experimental groups as an important element in learning how to make sense of different types of metaphors. To begin with, when all the experimental groups, both Upper- Intermediate and Advanced levels, encountered universal metaphors in the pre-questionnaire, as explained earlier, the majority of the results indicate that most experimental group students used word-for word meaning as their predominant strategy (see Bar Charts 4 & Table 14). However, a major shift in the strategies used occurred in the post-questionnaire, as most experimental group students resorted to using Strategy 5, conceptual meaning (see Bar Charts 24). A key unexpected result in this study is that universal metaphors proved to be rather challenging to many of the participants. This contradicts what is already known in the literature about universal metaphors. According to Lakoff & Johnson (1980) and Kövecses (2005), most universal metaphors are the product of universal experience, but not all. Therefore, universal metaphors are expected to be understood by people from different cultures. This claim is also supported by Charteris-Black (2002) who argues that universal metaphors are easily comprehended by EFL students due to the fact that target metaphors in L2 are similar linguistically and conceptually in students; L1, thus this type of metaphor is not seen as an obstacle to EFL learners. However, my findings disagree with Charteris-Black's (2002) finding that universal metaphors are easily understood by EFL learners. The results in this study clearly show that even Type 1 metaphor is problematic for Kuwaiti EFL learners (see Bar Charts 4 & Table 14).

Another important finding that sheds light on the role of proficiency level in aiding students make sense of metaphors is when both experimental groups encountered Type 3 metaphors in the awareness task. Based on Charteris-Black (2002), Type 3 metaphors may pose

some difficulty for EFL learners due to the linguistic similarities in both languages that might encourage the negative transfer of L1 meaning. The findings of my study disagree somewhat with Charteris-Black's (2002) study. While the results for the experimental upper-intermediate group do show that making sense of Type 3 metaphor might be difficult, the experimental advanced level group's results show that this is not the case, and that Type 3 metaphor is not difficult to understand. In addition, the results for the advanced level group show that they successfully arrived at the conceptual meaning of Type 3 (see Bar Chart 11). The experimental advanced level group were more capable of distinguishing the linguistic similarities between target metaphors in both English and KA, and the conceptual differences in both languages and had better results than the experimental upper-intermediate level, which can be attributed to the difference in proficiency level between groups. Therefore, it could be argued that students' proficiency level in L2 is indeed an important factor that affects their ability to make sense of difficult metaphors such as Type 3. However, linguistic proficiency did not seem to emerge as a factor that facilitates metaphor sense-making with Type 6 metaphors. As mentioned in Littlemore & Low (2006) and Charteris-Black (2006), Type 6 metaphors – that are linguistically and conceptually different in both L1 and L2 – are problematic for most EFL learners regardless of their proficiency level. The findings of the study agree with this view as proficiency level does not affect how EFL learners make sense of Type 6 metaphors. The results in Chapter 4 show that when the experimental groups encountered Type 6 target metaphors the majority did not reach their conceptual meaning, thus proficiency level was not a facilitating factor with this type of metaphor (see Bar Charts 12 & Table 18).

Overall, while learners' English language proficiency may be an important factor that facilitates metaphor sense-making, the impact of this factor is rather limited. Advanced learners continue to have the advantage of having more strategies to make sense of metaphors and are better equipped to understand Type 3 metaphors, subject to being taught how to distinguish the linguistic and conceptual similarities in their L1 and L2. Still, the impact of linguistic proficiency does not affect more challenging types of metaphor such as Type 6. The findings of the study confirm the findings of previous studies in this regard.

5.3.2. Role of proficiency level in the social acceptance task

The findings of Task 2 in the questionnaire (social acceptance of Type 3 metaphors that are linguistically similar in both Arabic and English but conceptually different) do not suggest that proficiency level plays a role in any of the groups' results. This, in turn, could be because the aim of the task depends on the social acceptance of different metaphors, which varies from one individual to another (see 4.4.6.). Nonetheless, it is important to mention that proficiency level in my study played some role in metaphor sense-making. The following section discusses the level of difficulty that some EFL learners might experience when they encounter different types of metaphors.

5.4 Finding 3: Effect of L1 values on L2 metaphors' suitability

The purpose of this section is to explore the relation between EFL learners' L1 values and their assessment of L2 metaphor suitability. This discussion engages with the second research question in Chapter 1:

How do Kuwaiti EFL learners attach cultural associations to metaphors?

To begin with, cross-linguistic studies like those of Bylund & Jarvis (2007), Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) and Türker (2016) have demonstrated that cognitive differences and patterns of conceptualization learned in one language can also be useful in another language. In other words, certain conceptualisations which have developed as part of learners' L1 might be used effectively in L2. However, not only have patterns of conceptualization acquired in a learner's first language been explored in the literature, but also the effect of learners' L1 knowledge and L1 values in relation to L2 metaphorical competence and suitability. Littlemore & Low (2006) argue that learners' cognitive and personality-based characteristics are expected to exert an influence on their metaphoric competence. In addition, Littlemore (2003a) compared the value system of language learners' home country with that of target-language countries (e.g. Great Britain) and found that language learners' own value system affects their understanding of L2 metaphors. That is to say, participants' interpretation of L2 metaphors "supported, rather than contradicted their own value system and schemata" (ibid.: 282). Furthermore, Galantomos' (2019: 61) study attributes L1 value meaning to how learners' L1 knowledge and personality-based characteristics, such as individual variables, namely gender and proficiency level, affect metaphor use among Greek learners. The literature documents different approaches to exploring the effect of L1 values on L2 metaphor suitability. In this study, I use the term "L1 values" following the work of Littlemore (2003a), though she does not specify what L1 values means. My own interpretation of L1 values as a concept accommodates both Littlemore's (2003a) and Galantomos' (2019) understanding of L1 values. Therefore, in this study L1 values refers to the sociocultural connotations, either positive or negative, that learners associate with a metaphor based on their

L1 cultural understanding or cultural judgement. These understandings can also be linked to personal beliefs and linguistic proficiency.

However, the findings in Chapter 4 suggest that language proficiency is not a key factor influencing how learners' L1 values might affect L2 metaphors' suitability. This can partially be said about the effect of the teaching intervention in Part 2 of the questionnaires that included four Type 3 metaphors (see 4.4.6). In this task, students were asked to rate the suitability of underlined metaphors and to justify their ratings. The findings in Part 2 of the questionnaire suggests that the effect of explicit teaching might have clashed with the learners' L1 value system which is entrenched with cultural and religious values. That said, I cannot completely disregard the effect of the teaching intervention on rating metaphor suitability. When comparing the results of the experimental group before and after the teaching intervention, I noticed that in the pre-questionnaire students' answers were repetitive and not detailed; as an example, when students were asked to give an explanation some would write down one of the three choices given: suitable, not sure or not suitable (see Appendix H.). This can also be said about the results for the control groups in the pre-, post- and delayed-post questionnaires (see 4.4.6), which could indicate disengagement, lack of interest or understanding. Nevertheless, there was a noticeable difference in the experimental groups' explanations in the post-questionnaire. After the teaching intervention, students' explanations became more vivid and varied. As a result, two dominant themes emerged: religion and culture. For example, in answer to Q.3 "...I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs, I left them on this table last night?" one participant's explanation related to the theme of religion:

"Not allowed in Islam." [St. 23. E. U.]

Student 23 from the experimental upper-intermediate group attributed negative connotations to the example “drug”, she explained that drugs are not allowed in Islam. This might indicate that when she interpreted the underlined metaphor, she probably used a word-for word meaning where “drugs” means illegal substances. In so doing, she was not aware that the term “drugs” might have another meaning, i.e. “medicine”, thus deeming the underlined metaphor to be religiously unacceptable. Her explanation might not be intentional, it can also as a result of a lack of English proficiency. Another theme that emerged from the experimental students’ answers is the role of culture. For example, for Q.4 “...I didn’t know you drink.”:

“Against our culture.” [St. 24. E. A.]

Student 24 from the experimental advanced group attributed negative connotations to the underlined metaphor “drink”. This student interpreted the word “drink” as consuming alcohol and rated it as unsuitable in light of her own cultural values. In addition, even though some students’ explanations were governed by their L1 value system, and their L1 knowledge that includes Arabic culture and Islamic religion, it is worth mentioning that some participants displayed some understanding and awareness of the target culture and distinguished differences between their L1 value system and L2 language and culture. For instance, for Q.4 “...I *didn’t know you drink*”, some students explained:

“It is part of Western culture.” [St.26. A.E.]

“In their culture it is acceptable, but not in our culture.” [St.28. E.A.]

These students appear to have established two different value systems in their assessment of the suitability of this metaphor. As such, they attributed both negative and positive connotations to the same word “drink”, depending on the culture in question. This could indicate a level of

awareness and understanding of inter-cultural differences. Consequently, it might suggest that when English language teachers enlighten students about the different connotations an English metaphor carries, they could raise their awareness by allowing them to explore the similarities and differences of target metaphors compared to their L1. Thus, teachers can help to raise inter-cultural awareness which can help to bridge the gap in the lack of exposure to the target culture and develop students' understanding of the different sociocultural connotations that L2 metaphors present.

5.5 Finding 4: To teach or not to teach metaphors in the EFL classroom

This section explores the importance of learning/ teaching English metaphors and the pedagogical implications of the teaching intervention used in this study. This discussion addresses the third research question presented in Chapter 1.

To what extent can an explicit teaching intervention that utilises conceptual mapping, semantic primitives, and the use of analogical reasoning enhance the learning of metaphors?

In so doing, it is first necessary to address the importance of teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom as well as the difficulty factor surrounding teaching metaphors. This raises the question of whether or not to teach metaphors in the EFL classroom, which is widely debated in the literature (see 1.1.). The aspect of teaching metaphors or avoiding them in the EFL/ ESL classroom is debatable among researchers in the field of metaphor. As Dong (2004: 30) puts it, “metaphorical language is often problematic in second language acquisition & learning & in English literacy instruction” because learning/ teaching metaphors is complex for both EFL learners and teachers. Due to the complexity factor in learning/ teaching metaphors, some

researchers like Jenkins (2020) argue for not teaching metaphors and avoiding using them in the EFL/ ESL classroom. Her argument calls for simplifying the English language, which entails minimising or avoiding idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs when teaching English. She believes that English language teachers need to prioritise simplicity, which requires focusing on literal meanings. It is worth noting that Jenkin's argument is part of her research on the features of English as a lingua franca and how most English speakers around the world use it in addition to their first language. This means that new varieties of English have emerged (c.f. the literature on World Englishes, such as Kachru *et al.* (2006) and Kirkpatrick (2007). These varieties do not conform to English native speaker norms and are influenced by different grammatical, phonological and cultural features that are reflective of the linguistic and cultural diversity of the world (see Jenkins, 2009). English as a lingua franca researchers such as Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2005) call on language educators to embrace ELF norms and teach English from a plurilithic perspective (Hall et al., 2013; Hall and Wicaksono, 2013; British Council, 2021). While these debates call on language educators to engage more fully with the changing realities of English in light of globalisation, mobility and the international spread of English, they are not without challenges. One of the most prominent challenges in this debate is that educational targets and standards for teaching English are still pretty much set against the norms of English as a native language (ENL). I do not aim to reproduce the ENL ideology in teaching English in Kuwait, but through this research, I argue for the need to teach English for communication, not just as a school subject. As such, I agree with Badwan (2020, 2017) when she calls on language educators to develop pedagogically honest teaching pedagogies that are reflective of language use in contemporary societies. Teaching metaphors in EFL Kuwaiti classes achieves two targets:

1. It challenges current grammar-translation practices and pushes learners to see beyond the literal meaning of words and 2. It reflects some aspects of how English is used in societies. Commenting on the second target, researchers like Dong (2004), Low (1988) and Littlemore and Low (2006) argue that metaphors should be taught in the EFL/ ESL classroom as they exist in everyday language (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Therefore, Low (1988) calls for incorporating metaphor instruction into second language curriculums since metaphor is central to language use. Another supporter of this view is Dong (2004) who argues in his “Don’t keep them in the dark” article that English language teachers should not keep metaphor learning /teaching in the dark and that EFL learners should be aware of metaphors in order to develop their English language communication.

Some researchers who support learning/teaching metaphors like Deignan, Gabys & Solska (1997) have suggested different methods to incorporate metaphor learning/ teaching in the EFL classroom. They promote metaphor awareness-raising activities, like translation exercise, discussions, encouraging students to compare metaphorical expressions in L2 to their L1 to help them understand metaphors and how to use them appropriately in their L2. While all these recommendations regarding incorporating metaphor learning/ teaching in the EFL classroom may sound easy to apply, they are rather challenging but equally important. This is because “The majority of English language learners around the world are introduced to English through formal education” (Badwan, 2020: 1). In formal education contexts, English language teachers and learners are constrained by educational authorities and curricula that are often imposed, which makes it difficult for English language teachers to improvise and incorporate different skills like teaching different types of metaphors. This sentiment is reflected in Badwan (2017: 193) who

maintains that “Language educators in many parts of the world are torn between preparing language learners to pass language proficiency tests and trying to let their classrooms reflect the messiness of out-of-class communication.” As a result of this top-down pressure, “English language learners are taught language for communication in predicated, homogenous, imagined communities instead of being taught language as communication in unpredicted, real and super-diverse communities” (Badwan, 2020: 1). This teaching approach does not equip EFL learners with the communication skills they need when they step outside the EFL classroom and start communicating with other speakers of English.

Commenting on English as communication vs English as an object of study, Ellis (2011a) and Ellis et al. (2002) distinguish between learning English in an uninstructed context which results in allowing learners to treat English language as a means of communication and learning English language in an instructed context which requires learners to treat the English language as an object of study. In response to this distinction and based on this project, I argue that instructed contexts can indeed be utilised to introduce English for communication. One way to deal with the pressures placed on language educators is to follow the English as a lingua franca approach advocated by Jenkins (2009, 2020), who calls for avoiding teaching figurative language in the EFL classroom. I would like to embrace a middle ground approach that does not downplay the pressures on teachers while aiming to go beyond vocabulary lists and English as an object or a school subject. Metaphor awareness raising sessions do not have to happen every week, but they could take place whenever students are faced with them. It is worth noting that all the metaphors used in this study were extracted from teaching materials that the participants

studied. Still, they were not aware of them because the teachers avoided the introduction of metaphors to save time and effort. With this middle ground approach, I agree with Dong.

Dong (2004: 34) states that “When students begin to think metaphorically, they are on their way to developing their language.” I argue that instead of keeping students in the dark, to simplify English, English teachers need to incorporate metaphors into EFL classroom education. Doing so would help language educators to provide language learners with opportunities and resources to flourish in English. Based on the findings from the group interview (see 4.3) and the teaching intervention (see Chapter 3), it is beneficial when teachers allow students room to negotiate the meanings of metaphors with other students. It creates an active classroom environment, which challenges and motivates learners. Negotiating meaning among language learners is also encouraged by Long and Porter (1985) who argue that group work improves students' ability to use the target language and communicate with each other. In language learning, one component of learning and participation, known as meaning negotiation, was believed to be beneficial (e.g., Long, 1980, 1983; Pica, 1987, 1994a, 1994b). In my research, I encouraged the participants to negotiate the meaning of different culture-based metaphors with the help of explicit instruction – semantic primitive, metaphorical mapping, and analogical reasoning – in order to understand the conceptual meaning of target metaphors. Another reason to encourage meaning negotiation is to avoid teacher-fronted classrooms that have been criticised widely in the literature (Long, 1981; Pica & Doughty, 1985, Doughty & Pica, 1986, Iwashita, 2001).

Nevertheless, while meaning negotiation is encouraged as a classroom practice, it is important not to leave learners with the false hope that they will always be successful negotiators

outside the classroom (Canagarajah, 2014). Since out-of-class communication is unpredictable, not all learners will have interactional affordances to negotiate meaning. If this happens, they might lose face and feel confused or frustrated. See for example Badwan's (2017) research on the frustrations encountered by Arab academic sojourners in the UK. Therefore, negotiation by itself is not sufficient. What I advocate for in this study is classroom negotiation supported by explicit instruction to equip language learners with communication skills. These debates encourage me, as an applied linguist and educator, to pay more attention to my way of teaching, allow my students more time and equip them with different learning skills to develop their English language and communication skills. The teaching intervention I have developed in this study is an example of a class activity that raises students' awareness about the different types of metaphors, as evident in the experimental groups' results (see 4.4.4.2).

To sum up, my study responds to calls for pedagogically honest approaches to teaching, as in Badwan (2020). I argue for the need to incorporate teaching metaphors in EFL classrooms around the world. I think it is time to stop keeping students in the dark, under the guise of simplifying language and saving time. In doing so, it is hoped that English language learners will be offered an honest English learning education that is responsive to, and reflective of, how language is used outside the classroom.

5.6 Finding 5: Effect of retention on learning/teaching metaphors

Through the use of a delayed post-question, Chapter 4 explored the role of learners' retention in understanding how to make sense of metaphors. The effect of retention in learning/ teaching metaphors has been explored by different researchers in the field, like Boers et al. 2004) and

Heidari et al. (2015). It is argued that metaphoric awareness may contribute to the retention of figurative expressions (Boers, 2000a, 2000b). In addition, instruction involving metaphoric mappings can lead to longer-term effects than instruction involving conceptual metaphors (Chen & Lai, 2011: 545). When students identify the source domain in a metaphor in a task that involves doing so, this identification seems to occur at a deeper level of processing, and such deep-level processing is believed to boost retention (Boers et al., 2004). This claim is also supported by Ellis (2002a) who argues that systematic elaboration can facilitate a deeper level of cognitive processing through the learning process. In addition, the advantages of relating existing and concrete knowledge to new and abstract concepts through epistemic mappings can solve problems caused by cultural specificity. The views about a deeper level of processing metaphors and the effect of retention on learning/ teaching metaphors suggest that the instruction of metaphoric mappings may bring relatively more consistent & steady progress in learning/ teaching metaphors, which I explore in the teaching intervention (see 3.6.3). Therefore, the teaching intervention was not just an experiment; it is a different teaching approach with a different teaching philosophy that aims to invoke deeper levels of processing. The teaching intervention attracted my participants' attention to metaphors, and they were aware that there are metaphors in English, just as there are metaphors in Arabic. Therefore, the teaching intervention acted as a process for raising awareness to let the participants better understand metaphors.

Moving on to discuss the retention aspect of the study by exploring whether or not that awareness and understanding diminished over time, I refer to the results of the delayed post-questionnaire in my study. Before I discuss the results, it is worth noting that most of the studies

reviewed for this project did not include a delayed aspect but encouraged future researchers to apply one. Therefore, I was curious to know whether or not these participants would be able to maintain their understanding and awareness of different types of metaphors as a result of the teaching intervention. The delayed post-questionnaire was conducted under different conditions which might have affected the results. When I looked at my Experimental groups participants' results in the delayed post-questionnaire (see. 4.4.5.), I found that the participants who used Type 4 metaphor to explain Type 6 English metaphor continued to use Type 4 metaphors in the delayed post-questionnaire. This agrees with Ellis' (2002a) view that a deeper level of understanding metaphors through mapping might help students to understand even culture-based metaphors. In addition, the experimental groups' results show that in Type 1 and Type 3, the advanced level groups continued to give the conceptual meaning of metaphors while the upper intermediate group returned to using word-for-word meaning as in the pre-questionnaire phase. In Type 6, the majority of the experimental groups went back to using word-for-word meaning. As for the control groups, the majority used word-for-word meaning for types 1 and 6 of metaphors. However, there was a difference found in Type 1 where only the Control Advanced group gave the conceptual meaning (see Bar Charts 10–15).

There are many possible explanations of these findings. The most important one is the time factor. I intended to leave more than a month's gap between the post-and delayed post-questionnaires to explore retention. During this time, students were back to their English classes and were exposed once again to the same teaching approach that treats English as a list of vocabulary items and grammar rules. As a result, most of the participants returned to the strategy of using word-for-word meaning. Nonetheless, I cannot guarantee the accuracy of my

interpretation of the findings from the delayed post-questionnaire for a number of reasons. First, my participants were taking exams at the time when they were asked to complete the delayed post-questionnaire. Second, the delayed post-questionnaires were administered by my colleague while I was back in Manchester. Not seeing me could have affected how seriously they took the questionnaires. This is a limitation that I am aware of. Therefore, it is not possible to confidently interpret why many of the participants resorted to word-for-word meaning. Was it because they forgot? Was it because they were under exam pressure? Was it because I did not administer the questionnaires myself? One practical lesson from this experience is the importance of revising and reminding to ensure that students' awareness of metaphors is maintained. Another methodological lesson would be to try to interview the students after analysing the delayed post-questionnaires to explore with them explanations of why retention was not maintained. This is a recommendation for future researchers. The reason for not being able to conduct a follow up interview in this study was mainly timing, because most of my advanced groups graduated at the end of the term and thus a follow up interview was not feasible.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

6.1 Thesis Summary

This quasi-experimental, mixed methods study has explored the different strategies that EFL Kuwaiti learners use to make sense of different types of metaphors, while highlighting the impact of a metaphor-teaching intervention. This thesis emphasises the need to incorporate learning/teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom, as well as the need to deviate from the emphasis on English as a subject with more focus on English as a means of communication (Hiep, 2007: 194). At the same time, this doctoral project has presented an example of mediating between theory and practice in the case of learning/ teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom. It has demonstrated the advantages of reading theoretical linguistics research with the aim of extracting and developing pedagogical tools or strategies. This is one of the key contributions of this project, as I discuss further in section 6.2 While I have learned a great deal from this mediation exercise, I present some of the challenges that I faced while doing some of the theory-practice bridging work in section 6.3.2.

It is hoped that this study will influence the implementation of teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom, help EFL learners develop their English communication skills and develop their intercultural understanding of the English language to equip them to deal with some of the unpredictable communicative encounters they might face outside the classroom. Informed by my understanding of the study's context and the theoretical discussion presented in Chapters 1 and 2, I formulated my main research questions thus:

- 1. What strategies do Kuwaiti EFL learners use to make sense of English metaphors?***
- 2. How do Kuwaiti EFL learners attach cultural associations to metaphors?***
- 3. To what extent can an explicit teaching intervention that utilises conceptual mapping, semantic primitives and the use of analogical reasoning enhance the learning of metaphors?***

In Chapter 3, I presented the main methodological decisions, procedures and challenges, as well as the study's development. Chapter 4 portrays an engaging narrative of the study's main findings which were theoretically interpreted in Chapter 5.

During this study, a group of Kuwaiti EFL students studying in PAAET received a teaching intervention that combined explicit instruction based on conceptual mapping, semantic primitives and the use of analogical reasoning to raise their metaphor awareness. The results of all the pre-, post and delayed-post questionnaires for the experimental group students were compared with the results for a control group of students who had not received the teaching intervention. Overall, the post-questionnaire results show that students who had taken the teaching intervention classes made significant improvements in metaphor awareness and developing their intercultural understanding. The findings show that there are different levels of metaphor difficulty that Kuwaiti EFL learners encountered before the teaching intervention and after it. Through the teaching intervention developed, students started to use cognitive thinking to make sense of metaphors and stepped away from the traditional grammar-translation methods they are used to. Nonetheless, culture-based metaphors remain a challenge to make sense of for most learners. In addition, there are several factors that affect the learning of

metaphors in an EFL context, e.g., a learner's English language proficiency level, as well as the deeper level of processing metaphors. The explicit instruction of metaphorical mapping used in this study was a key factor in raising students' awareness of different types of metaphors. The cultural associations attached by Kuwaiti EFL learners to metaphors were motivated by the level of a learner's awareness and understanding of intercultural differences between L1 and L2. Therefore, if English teachers can help to raise inter-cultural awareness in the EFL classroom this might bridge the gap of a lack of exposure to the target culture and language and assist in developing students' understanding of the different sociocultural connotations that L2 metaphors present. Thus, the teaching intervention proved to be fruitful and helped raise EFL learners' awareness of different types of metaphors. Since metaphors are central to language use then it is important to incorporate the learning/teaching of metaphors in the EFL classroom. In that way, as teachers, we offer an 'honest' English learning education where English is a language for communication inside the EFL classroom and outside it (Canagarajah, 2014: 783). Having summarised the study's key findings, I now move on to comment on the study's contributions, implications, limitations and directions for future research. After that, I conclude with a note on my own reflections as a researcher.

6.2 Contribution of the study

This study represents a threefold contribution: conceptual, methodological and pedagogical. To begin with, the conceptual contribution of the study merges theory and practice and encourages more work to be done in this direction in order to create channels through which linguists and

language teachers can talk to each other. Mediation between theory and practice is a debatable issue in applied linguistics. According to Badwan (2014: 3), mediation in applied linguistics appears to be “a top-down process where pedagogical implications are imposed without questioning their pedagogical value or the rationale behind already existing practices” (ibid. : 3). In other words, linguists develop ideas without consulting instructors and do not offer answers to teachers or students in the classroom. Similarly, Davies (2007: 137) argues that applied linguists are more interested in ideas and enquiries than creating solutions. According to Badwan (2014: 3), the lack of communication between linguists and practitioners is not solely the fault of linguists; some practitioners, too, lack communication with linguists and build their own teaching techniques from their own perspective. The two sides are driven apart, according to Badwan (2014), and each side supports a specific pedagogical interpretation. Therefore, she argues that “the essence of mediation requires no imposed implications from either party” Badwan (2014: 3). Linguists and language teachers should work together to solve problems, and this is what this study aspires to do.

Methodologically, the study provides a way for future readers and researchers to see how they can work on mediation between theory and practice. The study addresses the complexity of mediating between theory and practice and provides an example of how a number of unintelligible theories can actually be taken forward and used to inform a teaching intervention that can happen in the classroom. My aim is to arrive at a better understanding of how EFL learners make sense of different types of metaphors, especially culture-based metaphors, in addition to exploring the effect of the learner’s value system in making sense of these metaphors. As a result, I developed a teaching intervention that integrates conceptual mapping, analogical

reasoning and semantic primitives (see Chapter 3), which is based on the study's conceptual framework. Moreover, the pedagogical contribution of the study springs from how we can re-imagine English language education to prepare language learners for communication outside the classroom, away from grammar translation and rote learning. It is about letting our learners 'taste' the language and understanding how language works. 'Tasting the language' is an Arabic metaphor that means to appreciate, enjoy and embody language. It is a phrase that I think I will use with my students to make them enjoy learning English in different ways.

6.3 Research implications

6.3.1 Implications for language educators

The results have a number of implications for language educators in Arab countries and other English language educators around the world who want to incorporate learning/ teaching metaphor into their EFL/ESL classes. While much of the research discussed in the literature review offered general guidelines for learning/ teaching metaphors, the results of this study suggest that learning/ teaching metaphors can and should be adopted in the EFL classroom. This is because the different tasks used in the teaching intervention were found to require EFL learners using different strategies to make sense of different types of metaphors. It also raised their metaphor awareness and developed their intercultural understanding of English. In addition, it is suggested that teachers might want to consider incorporating more learning/ teaching of metaphors into the language curriculum in general as the teaching intervention in this study was found to have significant benefits and was well received in this EFL context.

Furthermore, teachers might consider examining real language data when developing lesson plans and materials, as conventional textbooks might be designed to simplify the English language and thus not include many metaphors. For example, the study found only three types of metaphors that were extracted from the textbooks used at PAAET for EFL learners; therefore, teachers might consider using different types of metaphors from different authentic teaching materials, or extracts of TED debates, TV shows that reflect authentic language use. Finally, I acknowledge that teachers might face a number of challenges in incorporating learning/ teaching metaphor into the language curriculum, and that these difficulties should be taken into consideration when deciding if, how much and when to incorporate the learning/ teaching of metaphors in the EFL classroom.

6.3.2 Implications for Linguists/Applied Linguists/Educators

The study also revealed some implications for metaphor linguists, applied linguists and educators. First, this research attempts to mediate between theory and practice by bringing together two different 'worlds of knowledge' to apply to the real EFL classroom. It can be difficult for teachers to appropriately apply linguistic research in the language classroom, particularly teachers who want to use authentic materials. Therefore, it is important that linguists who write and develop theories about learning/ teaching metaphors have a connection with educators and teachers who are involved in teaching. It is important to establish communication channels while developing theories in order to produce linguistically accessible work that can be used by EFL teachers and people interested in English language learning/ teaching. This is echoed by Rose (2019) who calls for dismantling the ivory tower that researchers reside in away from teachers.

He calls for using research informed by teaching rather than teaching informed by research, which is something I agree with. This raises the question of what the point is of an influential book or reference that is hard to access, understand and apply. This is a question that higher education policy makers need to engage with in many countries around the world.

6.3.3 Implications for future study in learning/ teaching metaphors

In addition, there is still more to learn about how EFL learners make sense of different types of English metaphors. There is still a need for continuing to depart from the limitations of teaching English as a mere subject rather than a means of communication. Different types of metaphors are under-researched in the English language education literature and further enquiries are required. More needs to be done to understand EFL learners' awareness of English metaphors and develop their intercultural understanding of them. Furthermore, additional work needs to be done to establish different methods of incorporating metaphor learning/ teaching in EFL classrooms.

6.4 Recommendations for future studies

The study opens various doors for future research. To start with, in further research, it would also be interesting to investigate the six types of metaphors discussed in Charteris Black's study (2010) that are presented in Chapter 2 with more advanced EFL learners. Furthermore, metaphor theory research would benefit from more research on the role of learning/ teaching metaphors and metonymy in Arab EFL classrooms. In addition, methodologically, it would be interesting to include another follow up interview after the delayed post-questionnaire to investigate the

element of metaphor retention and get in-depth information about students' choices of sense-making strategies. Finally, metaphor research would benefit from longitudinal enquiries that involve direct observations and recordings of classroom sessions. However, it is critical to recognise the methodological limitations and difficulties of using these tools to do research.

6.5 Research Reflections

There is always a strong connection between the writer and their work, and this can be said about me and my thesis. Most of the theoretical and methodological constructs presented in this study are lived encounters for me as an academic, teacher, applied linguist, 'non-native' speaker of English, speaker of an ELF variety, mobile individual moving between 'EFL' and 'ENL' contexts and language educator. From the beginning of my PhD journey and towards the end of it, I have encountered various challenges as an applied linguist. The challenges I faced were linked to the practicalities of the mediation between theory and practice. This mediation approach was not an easy journey. Navigating different registers and different ways of writing from very unintelligible theory to something very practical was an interesting challenge, as well as navigating between theory and practice and finding my own voice, am I a linguist? A teacher? Or just a researcher in this study?

I navigated between these different positions as I was conducting this study. I was reading the Literature Review as a linguist or cognitive linguist trying to make sense of unintelligible cognitive linguistic theories. As I was reading another side of the literature (pedagogies of English language teaching) I was an applied linguist. As I delivered the teaching intervention in the classroom, I was an English language teacher. As I was thinking about the implications of what I was doing in

relation to education, I was not just a teacher, I was also a language educator. Navigating between linguist, applied linguist, teacher, educator and researcher has given me a really exciting pool of reflections. If I look at the different stages of my study, I was actually developing different aspects of my academic and professional identity in every stage and I tried to pull these together. In the middle of all of that I was also a mother caring for children and protecting them from a horrible virus, which is a position I also had while navigating all of the other positions. Amidst all of these different positions, I had some concerns. Some reoccurring questions always popped up into my mind; I ask myself, what is the purpose of linguistic research? When we do all of this fascinating linguistic research, which is written in very difficult unintelligible language, people outside linguistics, people who work with language in education can't access that information, so what is the point of it? Is it written to sit on bookshelves? What is the purpose of research if it does not help educators? I argue that research should have an impact on our social life and one of the best ways to change social arrangements is to start with education, and this is what my thesis attempts to do. In this thesis I have discussed different types of sense-making in relation to metaphor, and I would like to conclude this thesis by explaining that this thesis has been an attempt at making sense of theory in relation to English language teaching education.

6.5.1 Research Development

This thesis has also been an important factor in my development as a person and an educator. The way I think about this thing we call 'English', my understanding of English as a means of communication, has changed completely. I knew before I started my study that learning English language does not necessarily mean to speak English like a native and that English is used for

communication. But it was drilled into me that to be proficient in English language you must sound like a native speaker of English. You have to speak in a certain way without any grammatical mistakes. But now, after conducting my study and looking at different varieties of English via social media and TV shows, e.g. watching many shows that include different English varieties around the world, like how African Americans speak English, how Taiwanese English speakers speak, I have started to notice different ways of using the English language and the range of different metaphors and grammatical variations. All of these contrast with my previous thinking about teaching English. The ‘ungrammatical’ English messages easily understood and accepted between listeners and speakers of those varieties astonish me. It has shifted my attention away from the traditional way of learning English to a more open accepting way of teaching English communication. After this study I acknowledge the different varieties of World Englishes. I embrace the differences in English communication, and I am more accepting of how my students talk the way they do and welcome it. This doctoral journey has changed me: as an English language teacher, a linguist, and an applied linguist. I realise now that English language as a means of communications is far richer and bigger than being just English language and I hope to continue on this professional and academic path while trying to present English as a means of communication that includes many exciting linguistic features that have been ignored in the classroom for too long. I started experimenting with metaphor teaching in this thesis, I look forward to exploring new ways of a developing ‘pedagogically honest’ English language education (Canagarajah, 2014, Badwan, 2017).

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Appendices

A. Appendix 1

The following are examples used in Mohammad and Assiri's (2012) study. Example 19 is used in the teaching intervention.

1. My friend went **bananas** when his new car was stolen.
2. Tom was angry with his **girlfriend**.
3. Many **love** children suffer from psychological problems.
4. Our teacher has to get rid of **the bad eggs** in the classroom.
5. The stock market is under the control of **fat cats**.
6. Chris used to be **yellow** in a serious situation.
7. I was on **cloud nine** after I got the full marks.
8. Many people want to make **a quick buck**.
9. Your car is in **sad shape**.
10. Don't annoy him, he has a **bad ticker**.
11. English isn't **my cup of tea**.
12. The criminal was sent **to the big house** for 20 years.
13. Nora was **dressed to kill** for her party on Saturday night.
14. His **pocket is deep**.
15. My father **wears the trousers** at home.
16. This jacket costs ten **bucks**.
17. I **smell a rat** regarding the new deal.
18. His job was **on the line** because of his carelessness.
19. Joe's new car is a **real lemon**.
20. He **lost his shirt** at the last race.
21. The information is straight from the **horse's mouth**.
22. Jack has a **date** with **his baby**.
23. Tom claims he is a **big cheese**.
24. The old man was caught **red-handed**.
25. If you have a **thin skin**, you will never survive in politics.

Source: Mohammad & Assiri, 2012:99-104.

B. Appendix 2

The Third edition

New Headway – Pre-Intermediate (Student's book)

By John and Liz Soars

Metaphors found in the book

(Many phrasal verbs)

	Page No.	Metaphor
1	p.125	When did you last catch a plane?
2		Our car has broken down
3	p.87	I've had a row with my mother
4	p.18	Angry white teeth
5	p.75	No work, no boss, no worries. No grey skies...
6	p.124/ T 10.5 B	You're cut off!
7	10.5 A	It drives me mad
8	10.5 B	...but its machines I can't stand...
9	10.5 A	What a cheek!
10	p.124/ T 10.8 D	I haven't heard from you in ages!
11	p.124/T 11.2	Shanty town outside the city
12	p.124/T 11.5	At a crossroads in life
13	p.124/T 11.5	Put the wedding off for a while...

C. Appendix 3

Digital Edition

Oxford University Press 2014

New Headway – Intermediate (Student's book)

By John and Liz Soars

Metaphors found in the book

(Many phrasal verbs)

	Page No.	Metaphor
1	p.11	Drug abuse
2	p.37	It's stuffy in here.
3	p.37	The line is engaged
4	p.43	Lazing on the beach
5	p.43	Nosing around in shops
6	p.43	I potter around the house in my PJs
7	p.58	Skyscrapers
8	p.58	Ironworkers
9	p.60	Phrasal verbs: I came across... ...end up in different cities Literal She looked out the window Idiomatic Look out! That dog's going to bite you. Taken off... Gone out... Cut off... Pick up...
10	p.65	I might take up...
11	p.66	In what way is our life like a jigsaw?
12	p.66	A sudden huge windfall would dramatically change it and smash the jigsaw.
13	p.66	Tempting idea.
14	p.66	Protect their sanity!
15	p.69	My head is killing me! And my nose is running!
16	p.74	Thirty sheep were lying about him on the baking earth.

17	p.75	We spent the whole day walking in silence through his forest.
18	p.75	...from wasteland.
19	p.78	Texting-crazy.
20	p.89	There are a lot of people here! I know. It's absolutely packed. I can't move!
21	p.89	The worst I have seen in ages!
22	p.93	Kiss something goodbye.
23	p.93	Hit the roof.
24	p.93	Think twice.
25	p.93	Kick the habit.
26	p.93	Drop someone a line.
27	p.94	Honeymoon.
28	p.99	...brought up.
29	p.108	Pocket money.

D. Appendix 4

Digital Edition

Oxford University Press 2014

New Headway – Intermediate (Workbook)

By John and Liz Soars

Metaphors found in the book

(Many phrasal verbs)

	Page No.	Metaphor
1	p.16	Check-in desk.
2	p.20	Masked robbers burst into the bank...
3	p. 21	...managed to unpack during the day.
4	p.122	...honeymoon.

E. Appendix 5

Table A1— (TYPE 1) Equivalent conceptual basis, equivalent linguistic form

No.	Linguistic Expression		Figurative meaning (equivalent)	Conceptual basis (equivalent)
	English	Arabic		
	Examples from Headway			
1	When did you <i>last catch a plane</i> ?	<i>Meta akhir mara rikabat Tayarah?</i> متى آخر مرة ركبت طائرة؟ Lit. When was the last time you rode an aeroplane?	To take a flight/plane trip	CONTROL IS TOUCHING
2	<i>It drives me mad</i>	Yan nantini يننتني Lit. you are making me crazy Or Wasalt Hadee وصلت حدي Lit. I am up to my limit!	To be very angry	ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAINER+ THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR EMOTION
3	I haven't heard from you in <i>Ages</i> !	Ma semaana Aanah min zimaan ما سمعنا عنها من زمان Lit. We haven't heard about him in a very long time	Distance and length	LIFE IS A JOURNEY
4	Are You At A Crossroads In Your Life?	Wisalt ila akher il Tareej وصلت لي آخر الطريق Lit. I came to the end of the road.	It Means More Than You Realize	A PROBLEM IS AN ANIMATE OPPONENT OR PROBLEMS ARE PUZZLES TO BE SOLVED
5	Drug abuse	Yitaatah يتعاطى Lit. takes drugs	Uses drugs	HARMFUL SUBSTANCES ARE ABUSIVE
6	The line is busy	Il khat mashqol الخط مشغول Lit. The line is busy	Busy line	CONTROL IS GRASPING
7	The city centre has a lot of Skyscrapers.	Il deera feeha wayed natihaat sahab. الديرة فيها وايد ناطحات سحاب	High buildings	DEVELOPMENT IS High OR PROGRESS IS HIGH

		Lit. The city centre has a lot of skyscraper buildings		
8	Tempting idea	Fikrah mogryah فكرة مغرية Lit. a tempting idea	Attractive Idea	IDEAS ARE FOOD
9	My head is killing me! And my nose is running!	Rasee thabihni, wa khashmee yasob راسي ذبحني و خشمي يصب Lit. I have a severe headache and a cold.	I am very sick	PAIN IS AN ANIMATE APONENT
10	They are on their honeymoon	Rayheen shahir il Aasal رايحين شهر العسل Lit. They went on their honeymoon	Happily in love	LOVE IS MAGIC
11	Masked robbers burst into the bank	Haramya mtlathmeen hijimaw Aala il bank حرامية مثلثمين اهجموا على البنك Lit. Masked robbers attacked a bank	Break into a place suddenly	STRENGTH IS INFLATION
12	Their lives were turned upside-down	Hyat hom inqalbat foq tahat حياتهم انقلبت فوق تحت Lit. Their lives were turned from up to down.	Drastic change	CONTROL IS BEING PHYSICALLY OVER SOMEONE OR THING
13	It opens the door to a whole suite of features.	Yiftah il bab la khasayes wayed يفتح الباب لخصايس وايد Lit. It opens the door to a lot of features.	Gaining opportunities	OPPORTUNITIES ARE TO BE GRASPED Or CONTROL IS TOUCHING
14	Their computers are up and running	Komputarat hom shaqalah كمبيوتراتهم شغالة Lit. Their computers are working well	Working	DEVELOPMENT IS STAYING ON A SPECIFIC COURSE
15	Why is cash flow important?	Laish tadafoq il amwal mohim? ليش تدفق الأموال مهم؟ Lit. Why is the money transferred in and out of a business important?	Money transferred in and out of the company	STABILITY IS A CONTINUOUS PROCESS

Note: COCA = Corpus of Contemporary American English

Table A2— (TYPE 3) Equivalent linguistic form, different conceptual basis.

No.	Linguistic Expression		Figurative meaning	Figurative meaning	Conceptual basis (equivalent)
	English	Arabic			
1	Our car has broken down	Syartnah tikasrat سيارتنا تكسرت Lit. Our car is completely damaged	English: The car is not functioning and needs repair Arabic: The car is broken into pieces and hard to repair.		English: FAILURE IS DIRECTED DOWN Arabic: PROBLEMS ARE ANIMATE OPPONENTS
2	The room is stuffy in here	Sarat il Ghorfah khanqa صارت الغرفة خنقة Lit. The room's atmosphere is suffocating (unpleasant)	English: It means that the air isn't circulating (probably warm) Arabic: I can't stand the people in the room/ feeling of anger and discomfort		English: STUFFY STANDS FOR THE PLACE / OBSTRUCTION (LACK OF AIR) IS DISCOMFORT Arabic: STUFFY STANDS FOR PEOPLE
3	the darkest hour was just before the dawn	Saah swooda yom shiftik ساعة سودة يوم شفتك Lit. It's a black hour when I saw you.	English: A time when bad events are at their worst and most dispiriting. Arabic: From the time I met you my life is miserable.		English: OPTIMISM IS LIGHT Arabic: DARKNESS IS MISFORTUNE
4	My ninety your old dad was but a shadow of himself.	Aayish bil ethlal. عايش بالظلال Lit. Living under the shades.	English: Less powerful or impressive than (what) he used to be. Arabic: Living a comfortable life/ Shade stands for comfort		English: SHADOW STANDS FOR WEAKNESS Arabic: COOL IS COMFORT
5	Let's go for a <i>drink</i> !	Sharekom nrooh nishrab lina shay? شرايكم نروح نشرب لنا شي؟ Lit. Let's go out for a drink?	English: To go for a drink in a bar (to socialize) Arabic: To go and drink coffee.		English: DRINK STANDS FOR SOCIALIZING Arabic: DRINK STANDS FOR SOCIALIZING (BUT DRINKING ALCHAHOL IS TABOO AND CRIMINALIZED!)
6	Where are my drugs...	Abee mokhadarat! أبي مخدرات Lit. I want drugs.	English: medicine Arabic: illegal medicine/drugs		English: DRUGS STANDS FOR PRESCRIBED MEDICINE Arabic: DRUGS STANDS FOR ILLEGAL SUBSTANCES
7	I have a date	Eindee maweid ma3 tabeebee	English: romantic date Arabic: doctor's appointment		English: DATE STANDS FOR ROMANTIC EVENING

		عندي موعد مع طبيبي Lit. I have a date with my doctor		Arabic: DATE STANDS FOR OFFICAL APPOINTMENT
8	She is very simple	Ihee insane baseeta wa taybah اهي إنسانة بسيطة وطيبة Lit. She is a simple and kind woman	English: She is of very low intelligence Arabic: She is humble with good manners	English: A PROBLEM IS A MENTAL BURDEN Arabic: GOOD IS DOWN
9	He is an owl at work	Inta boomah انت بومة Lit. You're an owl	English: He is a hard worker Arabic: He is bad/evil	English: OWL STANDS FOR ENERGETIC PERSON Arabic: OWL STAND FOR BAD OMEN
10	My son is in a special school	Weldee eb madresa momyazah! ولده بمدرسه مميزة Lit. My son is in a special school	English: A school for children with difficult needs. Arabic: An excellent standard school	English: SPECIAL STANDS FOR DIFFICULT Arabic: SPECIAL STANDS FOR EXCELLENCE
11	You're old! Let me get that for you.	Lazim asaeid il ekbar لازم أساعد الكبار Lit. I help the old.	English: characteristic of old age. (Negative connotation) Arabic: a person's status	English: LIFE IS A DAY OR LIFE IS A JOURNEY ARABIC: OLD IS PRESTIGIOUS

Table A3— (TYPE 6) Different conceptual basis, different linguistic form opaque

	English	Arabic	Figurative meaning (English)	Figurative meaning (Arabic)	Conceptual basis (equivalent)
No.	Linguistic Expressions				
	English	KSA (Kuwaiti spoken Arabic)			
1	Nosing around in shops	Malik ila khasmik law Aawaj مالك الا خشمك لو عوج Lit. You only have your nose even if its crooked!	To make observations, look around (positive) In other cases it can mean to pry (negative)	Accept your family with all their indifference!	English: NOSE FOR PERSON Arabic: NOSE FOR PERSONALITIES
2	I potter around the house in my PJs	Qaeda brehati قاعدة بريحاتي Lit. sitting alone and amused	amuse oneself, tinker about/around	Content with their own company	English: CERTAIN BEHAVIOURAL ATTRIBUTES ARE RESTRICTED TO CERTAIN TERRITORIES Arabic: COMFORT IN SOLIDARITY
3	Hit the roof	Kithir il daq yifich il leham كثر الدق يفج اللحم Lit. Consistent banging opens welding.	To be very angry or upset	For no one is it impossible to get through/ or change their mind	English: ANGER IS VERTICALLY HIGH / OR ANGER IS A HEATED FLUID IN A CONTAINER Arabic: CONSTANT PERSISTENCE IS A SOLUTION
4	Some observers liken the landscape to a field of giants <i>Hershey kisses</i> .	Il tool enkhala wil Aaqil, Aaqil eskhalah!	Cultural - To have a distinctive shape (tear	A person's physical appearance doesn't reflect his mentality	English: SHAPE IS DISTINCTIVE + HERSHY'S

		الطول طول نخلة و العقل عقل صخلة! Lit. He has the height of a palm tree and the mind of a goat!	drop) like the chocolate made by Hershy's	(Disappointment)	chocolate in tear-drop shape. Arabic: IMAGE IS CONCEIVING
5	Curiosity will get <i>a share</i> of the sale.	La itdaeil Eisik bshay ma ykhsik!! لا اتدخل عصك بشي ما يخصك Lit. Don't put the end of your back into something that doesn't concern you.	Curiosity and observation in sales are beneficial	Observe and interfere in other people's lives to do harm	English: OBSERVAION IS BENEFICIAL Arabic: UNNECESSARY KNOWELDGE IS HARMFUL
6	He puts an interesting <i>wrinkle</i> in our modern conceptions of which genetic traits go together.	IL Wajeh min il wajeh abyath الوجه من الوجه أبيض Lit. My face to your face is white!	Something unusual that needs looking at	I made all my effort to help you.	English: NEW TRAITS ARE INTERESTING (like wrinkle in the face) Arabic: FACE FOR PERSON/ WHITE FOR PURE EFFORT
7	He had a cool tingle when he saw the spider.	Maha Thaljah! مها ثلجة! Lit. Maha is ice!	To be scared	To be slow	English: FEAR IS FEELING COLD Arabic: SLOW MOVEMENT IS COLD
8	Amazon has put its fingers in many, many pies over the years.	Min taq tablah qal ana qablah. من طق طبلة قال أنا قبله Lit. Whoever beats the drums, you speak first!	Involved in too many things	Don't have a character/ doing what the crown does.	English: FINGERS FOR PERSONS + CONTROL IS TOUCHING Arabic: DRUM IS A TREND OR BEHAVIOUR OR

					DEPENDENCE IS WEAKNESS
8	What started as a run-of-the-mill proprietary data centre built to support Amazon	Ilee ma yearf lil Saqir yashwee اللي ما يعرف للصقر يشويه Lit. If you don't know a falcon, grill it!	Something ordinary	Your ignorance about something leads to regretful actions	English: RUN OF THE MILL FOR ROUTINE ACTIVITIES. Arabic: IGNORANCE IS A BURDEN
10	An umbrella manufacturer may see <i>windfall profits</i> during a rainy year.	Esh Hadik yal mismar qal il motriqa اش حدك على المسمار قال المطرقة Lit. Why are you putting up with it, the "nail" he said: it's the hammer!	Unexpected gain, gain in large amounts.	Being powerless and trapped	English: WINDFALL FOR PROFIT (WEALTH COMES IN LARGE AMOUNTS) Arabic: NAIL STANDS FOR A PERSON'S LIFE
11	her puffed-up purple winter coat	Itha tah il jamal ektharat sekakeena ادا طاح الجمل كثرت سجاجينه Lit. When a camel falls you'll find plenty of knives	Bigger than usual in size	Weakness after strength	English: ABNORMAL IS VISIBLE Arabic: CAMEL STANDS FOR PERSONAL STATUS. / TIME IS RUTHLESS
12	She had bobbed up and down in the ocean waves (Bobbed up) Phrasal verb *I didn't know anyone in the group until Harry bobbed up.	Ilee bil jidir etalaa il milaas اللي بالجدر يطلعه الملاس Lit. What is in the pot will come out with a ladle.	Appeared unexpectedly	Truth prevails Secrets revealed	English: MORE IS UP Arabic: TIME IS REVEALING Or TIME IS MONEY
13	Her face was flushed with embarrassment	Bagheena ha Oon Sarat fir3on بغيناها عون صارت فرعون	Feel ashamed		English: ANGER IS HEAT Arabic: AN ARGUMENT IS WAR

		Lit. We wanted your aid, and you became our Pharaoh.			
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F. Appendix 6

S.1 = Strategy 1: Literal meaning	Ex. "...honeymoon is over ..." Interpreted in KA: "Qamar Asaal" قمر عسل ENG. Meaning: "Moon made of honey".	Students tried to convert the source language grammatical constructions to their nearest equivalent, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context.
S.2 = Strategy 2: Word-for-word meaning	Ex. "... a <u>shadow</u> of disappointment..." Interpreted in KA "Dhill" ظل ENG meaning: "Shadow".	Students tried to give a word for word translation. Translator keeps the source language word order and uses common equivalent words to express the meaning.
S.3 = Strategy 3: Contextual meaning	Ex. "... <u>shadow</u> of disappointment..." Interpreted in KA "Risalat il bank mohbitah" رسالة البنك محبطة ENG meaning: "The bank's letter is disappointing".	Students miss the conceptual meaning or have no sensemaking of the conceptual meaning and provide a general meaning to the metaphorical expression underlined.
S.4 = Strategy 4: Irrelevant meaning	Ex. "...catch my flight." Interpreted in KA as "mataar" مطار ENG meaning: "airport"	Students might have no sense-making of the underlined metaphorical expression, or we might assume that students do not have the required level of language proficiency.
S.5 = Strategy 5: Conceptual meaning	Ex. "...catch my flight." Interpreted in KA: "Alhaq ala altayrah" الحق على الطائرة ENG meaning: "to get on the plane on time".	Students successfully make sense of the metaphorical expressions by providing the conceptual meaning directly.
S.6 = Strategy 6: Type 4 metaphor	Ex. "...upside down." Interpreted in KA as "Rasan Alaa Aqib" رأسا على عقب ENG meaning: "he turned head over heels" and the English conceptual of the expression would be "Upside-down".	Students provide a KA metaphor that has the same conceptual basis as the English metaphorical expression provided, but by using a different linguistic expression from their L1.
S.7 = Strategy 7: L1 transfer	Ex. "Hit the roof" Interpreted in KA as "Tarat min il Farha" طارت من الفرح ENG meaning "Flying from happiness".	When some students encountered metaphorical expressions with completely different conceptual bases from their L1 and linguistic expression in KA, they fall back on their L1 conceptual system to make sense of these metaphors and misinterpret the meaning.

G. Appendix 7

ENGLISH BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Age:

Name: _____ Student Id No.: _____

English Course: Intermediate Upper- Intermediate

I. Tick (✓) for each relevant choice that best represents your answer, and please explain your choice.

1. How often do you think you speak English other than in the English classroom?

Choice	Every day ()	Only when travel ()	Mostly with a domestic worker at home ()	Usually in restaurants ()	Other ()
Explain					

2. Learning English allows you to learn about English culture, where do you think your knowledge of English culture comes from...

Choice	TV ()	Social Media ()	A family member ()	Travelling to English speaking countries ()	In school ()	Other ()
Explain						

II. Write about how you use the English language to communicate in your everyday life, consider the following settings: at home, at college, in restaurants, online (twitter, WhatsApp, Snapchat etc.) or when you travel. *Please feel free to write using either English language or Arabic.*

H. Appendix 8

Pre-Questionnaire

A) Please fill in the following table:

Age	Name	English Course	Student ID Number	Email

B) Look at the examples below and explain what you understand from the following underlined expressions. For this task you can explain the meaning in Kuwaiti Spoken Arabic or in English.

* اقرأ الأمثلة التالية وفسر معنى الكلمة أو الكلمات التي تحتها خط بإمكانك التفسير باللغة الإنجليزية أو اللغة العربية.

1. I was distracted by an elderly lady asking the way to gate 15 when I was trying to catch my flight.

catch my flight means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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2. It took them ages to get here.

ages means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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3. Nasir considered the tempting idea of hiring experts from China for his company.

Tempting idea means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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4. Nawaf: Our elected MP is a good man, since he became a member of parliament he did most of the things he promised.

Maha: It has only been three months, wait until the honeymoon is over and then we can say if he is good or not.

Honeymoon means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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5. I was running as usual every morning with my friend in the park next to my home, when one day I collapsed, and my friend took me to hospital. I was diagnosed with a critical disease that turned my world upside down.

upside down means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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6. She burst into tears.

burst into means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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7. Afnan broke down, sobbing loudly, when she checked her final results.

broke down means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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8. I went to a stuffy dinner party on my first night in Los Angeles.

Stuffy means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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9. I sensed a shadow of disappointment in my father's expression when he read the bank's letter.

Shadow means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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10. **Saif:** Did you see Ahmed?

Samir: Don't you know he is a night owl?

night owl means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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11. She hit the roof when she heard the news.

Hit the roof means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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12. Her old house looked like giant Hershey kisses.

Hershey kisses means:

Explain:	<hr/>
-----------------	-------

13. **Afnan:** Have you seen Zain's new advertisement for Eid?

Razan: Yes, It's a new advertising wrinkle!

Wrinkle means:

Explain:	<hr/>
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14. When I was in secondary school I was a run-of-the-mill kind of student.

Run-of-the-mill means:

Explain:	<hr/>
-----------------	-------

15. I booked a ticket to New York, and my seat was W10. I sat in my seat comfortably, then an old man came and told me that I was sitting in his seat, and that I should move. He called the flight attendant to sort out the problem. She looked at his ticket and told him that he made a mistake and that his ticket is M10! The man bowed his head, his face was flushed with embarrassment.

flushed with embarrassment means:

Explain:	<hr/> <hr/>
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C) Read the following sentences and indicate if the underlined word in each sentence is something you feel it is socially acceptable to use in the following contexts.

- Rate how suitable you consider them to be: 1) *suitable*, 2) *Not sure*, 3) *Unsuitable*

- Then **explain** in your own words the meaning in Arabic.

*تحتوي الأمثلة التالية على كلمات تحتها خط، الرجاء تقييم استخدامك لهذه الكلمات بناء على ما هو مناسب اجتماعياً بالنسبة لك، وذلك باختيار؛ مناسب، غير متأكد، غير مناسب، مع شرح سبب اختيارك.

1. Three friends finished watching a movie at the cinema:

Natali: Let's go for a drink.

Liam: Yah, I'm in.

Khalid: Drinks are on me guys.

Natali to Khalid: I didn't know you drink.

Choice	1) Suitable <input type="checkbox"/> مناسب	2) Not Sure <input type="checkbox"/> غير متأكد	3) Unsuitable <input type="checkbox"/> غير مناسب
Explain			

2. Husband and wife at home after work.

Husband: Are you ok? You don't look well.

Wife: I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs, I left them on this table last night?

Husband: Here you go. You left them on my desk.

Choice	1) Suitable <input type="checkbox"/> مناسب	2) Not Sure <input type="checkbox"/> غير متأكد	3) Unsuitable <input type="checkbox"/> غير مناسب
Explain			

3. Two friends are describing their new colleague at work.

Nisreen: What do you think of Soad so far?

Bashayer: I think she is nice, easy to talk, and very simple.

Choice	1) Suitable <input type="checkbox"/> مناسب	2) Not Sure <input type="checkbox"/> غير متأكد	3) Unsuitable <input type="checkbox"/> مناسب
Explain			

4. **Elene:** What are your plans for the weekend?
Mishary: I have a date with Janet on Saturday.
Elene: That's great news.

Choice	1) Suitable <input type="checkbox"/> مناسب	2) Not Sure <input type="checkbox"/> غير متأكد	3) Unsuitable <input type="checkbox"/> غير مناسب
Explain			

Thank
you for
your

participation ☺

I. Appendix 9 (PowerPoint)

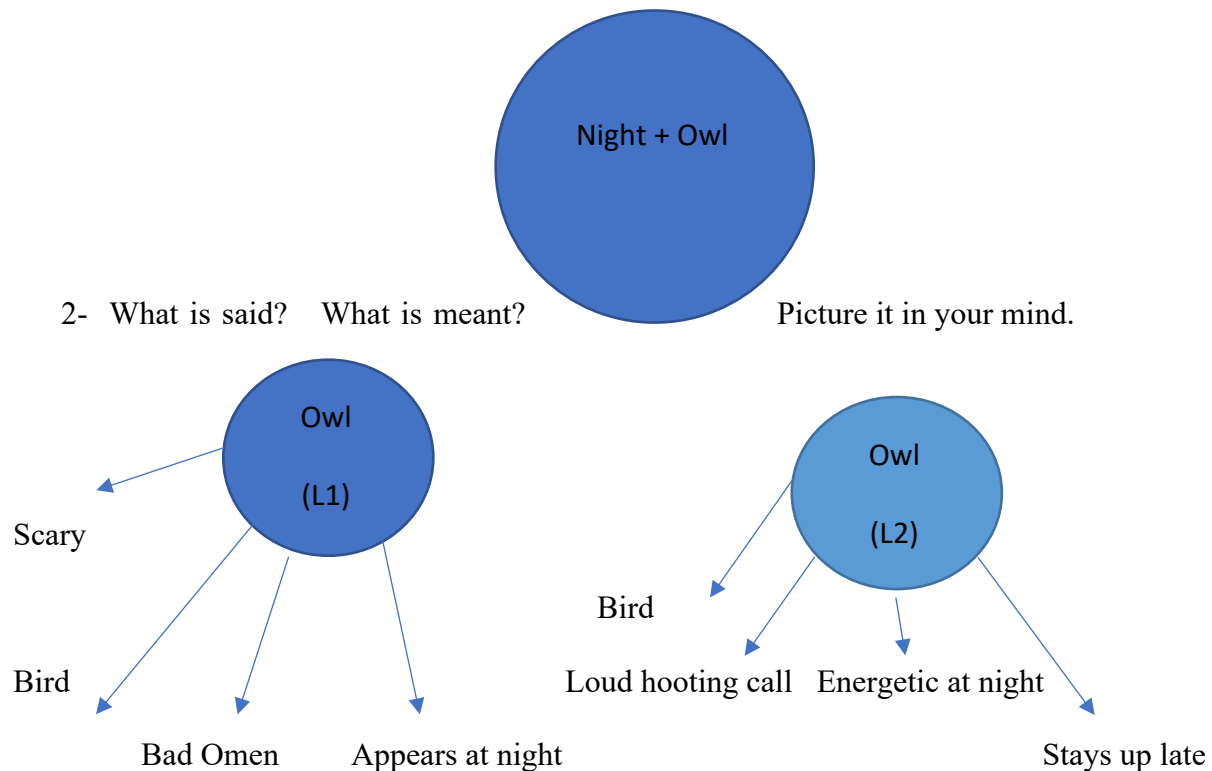
Example:

Sam: I haven't seen Ahmad since the midterm exams started!

Ben: Don't you know he is a night owl?

Instructions:

- 1- Please look at the underlined words and try to make sense of the meaning of those words separately.



Explain using the following expressions:

I think.....

Something is.....

If

This happens.....

This is good/bad.....

I think Ahmad stays up at night

Something changes when Ahmad has exams

Ahmad is doing ***something good***/bad by staying up at night to study

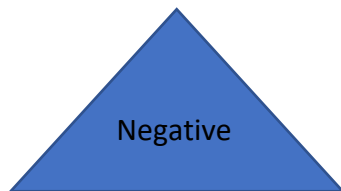
If Ahmad studies in the daytime he will not be as energetic at night

3- So, the....

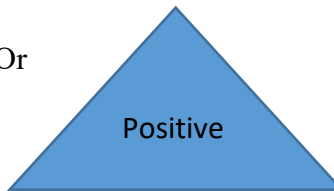
Literal meaning is → Ahmad studies at night

The intended meaning is → Ahmad is energetic and works best at night.

Owl → source domain

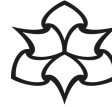


Or



J. Appendix 10. Approval letter from Supervisor to collect data.

**Manchester Metropolitan
University**



4 October 2018

**Faculty of Arts and
Humanities**
Department of Languages,
Information and
communications
Geoffrey Manton Building
+44 (0)161 247 3940
s.bullo@mmu.ac.uk

To whom it may concern:

As Mrs Maye Alotaibi's Director of PhD Studies, I am writing to confirm that she will travel from the UK to Kuwait to collect data for her PhD studies. The fieldwork will take place between from 5th to 28th October 2018.

Please do not hesitate to contact me should you require any more information.

Regards,

Dr Stella Bullo
Senior Lecturer in Linguistics
Research Degrees Manager



www.mmu.ac.uk

K. Appendix 11. MIP Explanation of selected metaphors

1. I was distracted by an elderly lady asking for the way to gate 15 when I was trying to catch my flight.

I/was/distracted/by/an/elderly/lady/asking/for/the/way/to/gate/15/when/I/ was/trying/to/ catch/ my/ flight/.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

distracted

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “distracted” is an adjective which means not able to concentrate on something. (not able to think clearly).

(b) basic meaning: The verb marry does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

by

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adverb “by” is used especially with the passive verb (e.g., distracted), for showing who does something or what causes something.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb ‘by’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

an

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the determiner “an” used instead of ‘a’ when the next word begins with a vowel sound (e.g., elderly), it is used to refer to mention a person.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘an’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

elderly

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “elderly” is an adjective which means an elderly person. Many people now think that this word is offensive, but it is often used in talking about policies and conditions that affect old people.

(b) basic meaning: The verb marry does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

lady

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “elderly” is a noun used for talking about a woman. Some people think this use is polite but other people think it is old-fashioned and prefer to use ‘woman’.

(b) basic meaning: The verb marry does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Asking

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “asking” is a verb which means to speak or write to someone because you want them to give you something.

(b) basic meaning: The verb ‘asking’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

for

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, a conjunction “for” indicates place, that is, it connects two clauses that is used for saying the place you are going to when you leave another place referred to by the third verb phrase in the sentence (*was trying to catch*).

(b) *basic meaning*: The preposition “for” can be used to introduce the beneficiary or recipient of an action, often involving the transfer of a physical entity from one person to another

(e.g., *I bought some flowers for Chloe*). This could be regarded as the basic meaning of the preposition. This is the first sense of “for” in the contemporary dictionary used (discussed later).

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

way

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “way” is a noun which means the path – to go from one place to another.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun ‘way’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” is a preposition followed by a noun. Hence, it is used for the place someone is going to.

(b) *basic meaning*: As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning does not contrast with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

gate

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “gate” is a noun which means the place at an airport where people get on a plane.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun ‘gate’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

15

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, a number.

(b) *basic meaning*: This number does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

when

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “when” is a conjunction connecting two clauses, it refers to the time that something else happens, at the same time as something else.

(b) *basic meaning*: The conjunction ‘when’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun that replaces a noun or a proper name, used to avoid repeating the same nouns over and over again.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

trying

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “trying” is an adjective which means difficult to deal with.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective ‘trying’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” has the purely grammatical function of signaling the infinitive form of the verb. Hence, it has a very abstract and schematic “meaning.”

(b) *basic meaning*: As an infinitive marker, to does not have a more basic meaning. As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider to as an infinitive marker, the contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

catch

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “catch” is a transitive verb which means to get on a plane that is travelling somewhere (to get on and off transport).

(b) basic meaning: The transitive verb ‘catch’ has a different, more basic meaning which is to stop and hold something that is moving through the air, e.g. ‘Can I borrow your pen?’ ‘Here, catch.’

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that catching is

to hold something that is moving from a place to another, and that catching a plane means to get into a plane to travel in air from one place to another. Metaphorically used? Yes.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner 'my' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

flight

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "flight" is a noun which means a journey through air or space in a vehicle such as plane.

(b) basic meaning: The noun 'flight' does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? Yes.

2. It took them ages to get here.

It/ took/ them/ ages/ to/ get/ here/.

It

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun it is used as the subject of a verb, can be used as the object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun it does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

took

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun means “to move something or someone from one place to another.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

them

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used for referring to a particular group of people or things when they have already been mentioned or when it is obvious which group you are referring to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

ages

(a) contextual meaning: is a plural noun is used to refer long period of time.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does have a more basic meaning; it can mean the number of years that someone has lived for example. “At the age of 10, I went to live with my aunt.”

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that *ages* can refer to the number of years someone has lived, and *ages* as the time period spent as a long time. Metaphorically used? Yes.

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” has the purely grammatical function of signaling the infinitive form of the verb. Hence, it has a very abstract and schematic “meaning.”

(b) *basic meaning*: As an infinitive marker, to does not have a more basic meaning. As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider to as an infinitive marker, the contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

get

(a) contextual meaning: is an intransitive verb refers to moving to or from a position or place.

(b) basic meaning: The verb *get* does have a more basic meaning which refers to obtain, receive, or be given something.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that get can refer to obtaining or be given something and get as moving from one position to another. Metaphorically used? Yes.

here

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

3. Nasir considered the tempting idea of hiring experts from China for his company.

Nasir/ considered /the/ *tempting* /idea /of/ hiring/ experts/ from/ China/ for/ his/ company.

Nasir

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

considered

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which means carefully thought about.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

tempting

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which is used for describing something that makes you feel you would like to have it or do it.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does have a more basic meaning which means something is interesting, original, exciting for example: “tempting juicy fruit”.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that tempting can refer to describe things that makes you feel you would like to have it or to do it or something interesting, original or exciting. Metaphorically used? Yes.

idea

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which is used for describing a thought that you have about how to do something or how to deal with something.

(b) basic meaning: The noun *idea* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

of

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for saying who or what has a particular feature, aspect, or quality.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

hiring

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which refers to if you hire something or pay someone to work for you, especially for a short time.

(b) basic meaning: The verb *hiring* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

experts

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun in the plural form which refers to someone who has a particular skill or who knows a lot about a particular subject.

(b) basic meaning: The noun *experts* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

from

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for stating who gives or sends you something or provides you with something.

(b) basic meaning: The noun *experts* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

China

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to the country China.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

for

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, a conjunction “for” indicates place, that is, it connects two clauses that is used for saying the place you are going to when you leave another place referred to by the third verb phrase in the sentence (*was trying to catch*).

(b) *basic meaning*: The preposition “for” can be used to introduce the beneficiary or recipient of an action, often involving the transfer of a physical entity from one person to another (e.g., *I bought some flowers for Chloe*). This could be regarded as the basic meaning of the preposition. This is the first sense of “for” in the contemporary dictionary used (discussed later).

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

his

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive pronoun which refers to a singular or plural noun, and it can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

company

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to an organization that provides services, or that makes or sells goods for money.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does have a more basic meaning it also refers to people you are with.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that company can refer an organization that provides services, or to people you are with. Metaphorically used? Yes.

4. **Nawaf:** Our elected MP is a good man, since he became a member of the parliament he did most

of the things he promised.

Maha: It has only been three months, wait until the honeymoon is over and then we can say if he is good or not.

Nawaf/ Our/ elected/ MP/ is/ a /good/ man/ since/ he/ became/ a/ member/ of/ the/ parliament /he/ did/ most/ of/ the/ things/ he/ promised/.

Maha/ It/ has/ only/ been /three/ months/ wait/ until/ the/ **honeymoon** /is /over/ and/ then/
we /can/ say/ if/ he/is/ good/ or/ not/.

Nawaf

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Our

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “our” is a possessive determiner, being a possessive form of we.

(b) basic meaning: It is belonging to or connected with you and the group that you are part of, when you are the person speaking or writing. It does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

elected

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “elected” is a past tense of “elect” a transitive verb, which means to choose someone by voting so that they represent you or hold an official position.

(b) basic meaning: The verb elected does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

MP

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “MP” is a noun, which refers to a Member of Parliament; someone who has been elected to represent people from a particular district in a parliament.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

is

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “is” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: MP.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the present tense of be, does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

good

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adjective “good” which means able to deal with someone or something well, or able to use something well.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

man

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “man” refers to an adult male human.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

since

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adverb “since” is preposition (followed by a noun “he”) and it is used as a conjunction connecting the first clause “Our MP....” With the second clause “he became a member....”.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

he

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

became

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

member

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “member” is a noun, which refers to someone who belongs to a club, organization, or group.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

of

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for saying who or what has a particular feature, aspect, or quality.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

Parliament

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “parliament” is a noun, which refers to an official elected group of people in some countries who meet to make the laws of the country and discuss national issues,

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

he

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

did

(a) contextual meaning: “did” is an intransitive verb which is the past of “do” that replaces or refers to an ordinary verb that was in a previous clause or sentence.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

most

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for saying who or what has a particular feature, aspect, or quality.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

of

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for saying who or what has a particular feature, aspect, or quality.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article *the* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

things

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “things” a noun that refers to an action or an activity.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

he

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

promised

(a) *contextual meaning*: “did” is a intransitive verb which means to tell someone that you will definitely do something.

(b) *basic meaning*: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

Maha

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

It

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “it” is used as the subject of a verb, or the object of a preposition.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

has

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the verb “has” is the 3rd person singular of the present tense of have.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

only

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adverb “only” is used for emphasizing that an amount, number, size, age, percentage etc. is small or smaller than expected.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

been

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the verb “been” is the past participle of be.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

three

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the number “3”.

(b) basic meaning: The number does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

months

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the plural noun “months” refers to one of the 12 periods that a year is divided into, such as January February etc.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

wait

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the verb “wait” means to stay in one place because you expect or hope that something will happen.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

until

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “until” is used as a conjunction connecting two clauses. Which refers to happening or done up to a particular point in time, and then stopping.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

honeymoon

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “honeymoon” is a noun used to refer to the beginning of a period of time, when everything is pleasant, and people try not to criticize.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does have a more basic meaning, it refers to a holiday that two people take after they get married.

(c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that honeymoon can refer to a holiday that two people take after they get married, or to refer to the beginning of a period of time. Metaphorically used? Yes.

is

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “is” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: honeymoon.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the present tense of be, does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

over

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “over” is an adverb after the verb “is” used for saying that a particular event, situation, or period of time has ended.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

then

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, then adverb “then” is used for saying what the results must be if something is true.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

we

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “we” is used as a subject pronoun.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

can

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “can” is a modal verb, which means have the ability or means to do something.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

say

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

if

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “if” is a conjunction used to refer to a possible or imagined situation

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

he

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

is

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “is” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: he.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the present tense of be, does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

good

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “good” is an adjective that refers to being able to do something well.

(b) basic meaning: the adjective does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

or

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “or” a conjunction used for connecting possibilities or choices. In a list, ‘or’ is usually used only before the last possibility or choice.

(b) basic meaning: the conjunction does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

not

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “not” an adverb used for making negatives.

(b) basic meaning: the adverb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

5. She **burst** into tears.

She/ burst/ into/ tears/.

She

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

burst

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “burst” a verb refers if something filled with air or water bursts, it breaks suddenly because there is too much pressure inside it or against it.

(b) basic meaning: the verb does have a different, more basic meaning literary if a bomb or firework bursts, it explodes.

(c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that honeymoon can refer an explosion, or to refer to if something breaks suddenly because there is too much pressure inside it or against it. Metaphorically used? Yes.

Into

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “into” is a preposition used for showing movement.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

tears

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “tears” a plural noun refers to a drop of liquid that comes from your eye when you cry.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

6. Afnan broke down, sobbing loudly, when she checked her final results.

Afnan/ broke/down/, sobbing/ loudly/, when/ she/ checked/ her/ final/ results/.

Afnan

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

broke down

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the phrasal verb “broke down” refers to start crying, especially in public.

(b) basic meaning: The phrasal verb does have a more basic meaning if a substance breaks down or is broken down into parts, it separates into the parts that it is made up of, for example, The substance is easily broken down by bacteria.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that honeymoon can refer something breaking down into parts, or to refer to if someone starts crying. Metaphorically used? Yes.

sobbing

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “sobbing” a verb which refers to cry nosily while taking short breaths.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

loudly

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adjective “loudly” is used for describing a sound that is strong and very easy to hear.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

when

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “when” is a conjunction connecting two clauses, it refers to the time that something else happens, at the same time as something else.

(b) *basic meaning*: The conjunction ‘when’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

She

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “She” is a pronoun used as the subject of a verb.

(b) *basic meaning*: The pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Checked

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “Checked” is a verb which means to examine something in order to find out whether it is how it should be.

(b) *basic meaning*: The verb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

her

(a) *contextual meaning*: is a possessive pronoun which refers to a singular or plural noun, and it can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

final

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, the adjective “final” means existing as the result of a long process.

(b) *basic meaning*: The adjective does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

results

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “results” is a plural noun which refers to something that is caused by something else that has happened previously.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

7. I went to a stuffy dinner party on my first night in Los Angeles.

I/ went/ to/ a/ stuffy /dinner/ party/ on/ my/ first/ night/ in/ Los Angeles/.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

went

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, the verb “went” is the past tense of go, that refers to move or travel to a place, in order to do a particular thing.

(b) *basic meaning*: The verb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” is a preposition followed by a noun. Hence, it is used for the place someone is going to.

(b) *basic meaning*: As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning does not contrast with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

stuffy

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, the adjective “Stuffy” is used in an informal way of criticizing anyone whose behaviour is unusual, for example; *My parents are being stuffy about my boyfriend*.

(b) *basic meaning*: The adjective does have a different, more basic meaning it refers to a stuffy room is too warm and has an unpleasant smell because there is no fresh air in it.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that stuffy can refer to an unusual behavior, or to refer to unpleasant and no fresh air in a room. Metaphorically used? Yes.

Dinner

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “dinner” refers to the main meal of the day, eaten in the evening or at midday.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

party

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “party” refers to a social event at which people meet to celebrate something or to have fun by eating and drinking, dancing, playing games etc.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

on

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adverb “on” refers to the day or date when something happens.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner 'my' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

first

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "first" refers to a number.

(b) basic meaning: The number does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

night

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun "night" refers to the part of each 24-hour period when it is dark.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

in

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “in” used for showing where someone or something is.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Los Angeles

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “Los Angeles” refers to the city in US.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

8. I sensed a shadow of disappointment in my father’s expression when he read the banks letter.

I/ sensed/ a/ shadow/ of/ disappointment/ in/ my/ father’s/ expression/ when/ he/ read/ the/ banks/ letter/.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

sensed

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the verb “sensed” is the past tense of the verb sense means to know about something through a natural ability or feeling, without being told.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Shadow

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “shadow” refers to a small amount.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does have a more basic meaning it refers to an area of darkness that is created when something blocks light. Example; Even on a bright day, the room was in shadow.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that shadow can refer to it refers to an area of darkness

that is created when something blocks light, or to refer to a small amount. Metaphorically used?
Yes.

of

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for saying who or what has a particular feature, aspect, or quality.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

disappointment

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun refers to the feeling of being unhappy because something that you hoped for or expected did not happen or because someone or something was not as good as you expected.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

in

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “in” used to describe a particular state or situation.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner 'my' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

father's

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun "father's" refers to your male parent.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Expression

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun "expression" refers to a look on someone's face that show their thoughts or feelings are.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

when

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, "when" is a conjunction connecting two clauses , it refers to the time that something else happens, at the same time as something else.

(b) *basic meaning*: The conjunction ‘when’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

he

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

read

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the verb “read” means to look at and understand words in a letter, book, newspaper etc.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

banks

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “bank” refers to a financial institution that people or businesses can keep their money in or borrow money from.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

letter.

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “letter” refers to a message that you write on a piece of paper and send to someone.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

9. She hit the roof when she heard the news.

She/ hit/ the/ roof/ when/ she/ heard/ the/ news/.

She

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “She” is a pronoun used as the subject of a verb.

(b) *basic meaning*: The pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

hit the roof

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the phrase refers to becoming very angry.

(b) *basic meaning*: The phrase does have a more basic meaning the verb hit means to move quickly onto an object or surface, touching it with force.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that hit the roof can refer to move quickly onto an object or surface, touching it with force, or to becoming very angry. Metaphorically used? Yes.

when

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “when” is a conjunction connecting two clauses , it refers to the time that something else happens, at the same time as something else.

(b) *basic meaning*: The conjunction ‘when’ does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

she

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “She” is a pronoun used as the subject of a verb.

(b) *basic meaning*: The pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

heard

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “heard” is the past tense and past participle of *hear*, refers to receive information about something.

(b) *basic meaning*: The verb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

news.

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, the noun “news” refers to information about something that has happened recently.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

10. Her old house looked like a giant Hershey kisses.

Her/ old/ house/ looked/ like/ a/ giant/ Hershey/ kisses/.

Her

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “her” is a possessive determiner, being a possessive form of she.

(b) *basic meaning*: The possessive determiner does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

old

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “old” is an adjective that refers to something that is old has existed or been used for a long time.

(b) *basic meaning*: The adjective does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

house

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “house” is a noun that refers to a building for living in.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

looked

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “looked” is the past tense of the verb look, which means to have a particular appearance.

(b) *basic meaning*: The verb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

like

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “like” is a preposition which means similar or in a similar way.

(b) *basic meaning*: The possessive determiner does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

giant

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “giant” is a noun that refers to something very large in size.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Hershey kisses

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “Hershey kisses” is a phrase that refers to a famous chocolate brand that uses a particular rectangular shape for their chocolate.

(b) *basic meaning*: The phrase does have a different, more basic meaning the verb kiss refers to touch someone with your lips when you say hello or goodbye to them.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that hit the roof can refer to touch someone with your lips when you say hello or goodbye to them, or to a particular rectangular shape of a chocolate brand. Metaphorically used? Yes.

11. **Afnan**: Have you seen Zain's new advertisement for Eid.

Razan: Yes, It's a new advertising wrinkle!

Afnan/ Have/ you/ seen/ Zain's/ new/ advertisement/ for/ Eid/.

Razan/ Yes/, It's/ a/ new/ advertising/ wrinkle!/!

Afnan

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Have

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the verb "has" is the 3rd person singular of the present tense of have.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

you

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun used as a subject or object.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

seen

(a) contextual meaning: In this context the verb "seen" is the past participle of see which means to notice someone or something using your eyes.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Zain's

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

new

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which refers to something recently created, build, invented, or planned.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

advertisement

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to an arrangement of pictures, words etc. put in public place or in a newspaper, on the internet etc. that is intended to persuade people to buy something.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

for

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, a conjunction “for” indicates place, that is, it connects two clauses that is used for saying the place you are going to when you leave another place referred to by the third verb phrase in the sentence (*was trying to catch*).

(b) *basic meaning*: The preposition “for” can be used to introduce the beneficiary or recipient of an action, often involving the transfer of a physical entity from one person to another (e.g., *I bought some flowers for Chloe*). This could be regarded as the basic meaning of the preposition. This is the first sense of “for” in the contemporary dictionary used (discussed later).

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

Eid.

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to the name of two festivals in Muslim religion.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

Razan

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

Yes

(a) contextual meaning: is an adverb that is used for telling someone that what they have said or asked is true or correct.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

It

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun it is used as the subject of a verb, can be used as the object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun it does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Is

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “is” ,is a 3rd person singular of the present tense of *be*.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

New

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adjective “new” refers to something that is recently created, built, invented, or planned.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Advertising

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “advertising” refers to an announcement informing people about a product, service, or event.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

wrinkle!

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which is used for saying that something is unusual /innovative

(b) basic meaning: The noun does have a more basic meaning it means a line that appears on your skin when you get older, or when your skin has been damaged by the sun.

(c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that a line that appears on your skin when you get older, or to an unusual or innovative thing. Metaphorically used? Yes.

12. When I was in secondary school I was a run-of-the-mill kind of student.

When/ I/ was/ in/ secondary/ school/ I/ was/ a /run/-of/-the/-mill/ kind/ of/ student/.

When

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the conjunction “when” refers to at what time or in what situation something happens.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

in

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “in” used for showing where someone or something is.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

secondary school

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun refers to a school for children between the ages of 11 and 16 or 18.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

run-of-the-mill

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the adjective means ordinary and not interesting.

(b) basic meaning: The verb *run* and the noun *mill* do have a more basic meaning “run” means to move quickly to a place using your legs and feet, and “mill” refers to a building where grain is made into flour.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “run” means to move quickly to a place using your legs and feet, and “mill” refers to a building where grain is made into flour, or ordinary and not interesting. Metaphorically used? Yes.

kind

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun that refers to a type of person or thing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

of

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for saying who or what has a particular feature, aspect, or quality.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

student

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun that means someone who goes to a university, college, or school.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

13. I was running as usual every morning with my friend in the park next to my home, when one day I collapsed, and my friend took me to hospital. I was diagnosed with a critical disease that turned my world upside down.

I/ was/ running/ as/ usual/ every/ morning/ with/ my/ friend/ in/ the/ park/ next/ to/ my/ home/, when/ one/ day/ I/ collapsed/, and/ my/ friend/ took/ me/ to/ hospital/. I/ was/ diagnosed/ with/ a/ critical/ disease/ that/ turned/ my/ world/ upside/ down/.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

running

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “running” is a noun that means the activity of running for pleasure or as a sport.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

as

(a) contextual meaning: “as” is a preposition used for saying that something happens or is done in the same way.

(b) basic meaning: the preposition does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

usual

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “usual” is an adjective that refers to normal, or typical of what happens or of what people do in most situations.

(b) basic meaning: the adjective does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

every

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “every” is a determiner that is generally used before a singular countable noun.

(b) basic meaning: determiner does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

morning

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “morning” is a noun which means the part of the day from when the sun rises until midday.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

with

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “with” is a preposition that means if one person or thing is with another or does something with them, they are together, or they do it together.

(b) basic meaning: the preposition does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner 'my' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

friend

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "friend" is a noun, which means someone you know well and like, but who is not a member of your family.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

in

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition "in" used for showing where someone or something is.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

park

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “park” is a noun, that means in a town, an open public area with grass and trees, often with sports fields or places for children to play.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

next to

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “next” is a preposition phrase used for referring to someone or something beside or very near to someone or something with no other person or thing in between.

(b) basic meaning: the preposition phrase does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner 'my' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

home

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, "home" is a noun which means the place where you live.

(b) *basic meaning*: The noun 'home' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

when

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, "when" is a conjunction connecting two clauses, it refers to the time that something else happens, at the same time as something else.

(b) *basic meaning*: The conjunction 'when' does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

one

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "one" is a number.

(b) basic meaning: the number does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

day

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “day” is a noun is one of the periods of time that a week is divided into, equal to 24 hours.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

collapsed,

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the verb “collapsed” is the past tense of collapse which means something or someone suddenly falls down.

(b) basic meaning: the verb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner ‘my’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

friend

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “friend” is a noun which means someone you know well and like, but who is not a member of your family.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

took

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “took” is the past tense of take which means to move something or someone from one place to another.

(b) basic meaning: the number does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

me

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “me” is a pronoun that is used for referring to yourself when you are the person who is speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: the pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” is a preposition followed by a noun. Hence, it is used for the place someone is going to.

(b) *basic meaning*: As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning does not contrast with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

hospital.

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “hospital” is a noun refers to a place where people stay when they are ill or injured and need a lot of care from doctors and nurses.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

diagnosed

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “diagnosed” is the past tense of diagnose which means to find out what physical or mental problem someone has by examining them.

(b) basic meaning: the verb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

with

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “with” is a preposition that means if one person or thing is with another or does something with them, they are together, or they do it together.

(b) basic meaning: the preposition does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

critical

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “critical” is an adjective that means someone who is critical is very seriously ill or injured and might die.

(b) basic meaning: the adjective does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

disease

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “disease” is a noun which is an illness that affects people or animals, especially one that is caused by infection.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

that

(a) contextual meaning: the conjunction “that” is used for introducing a clause that shows which person or thing you are talking about, or that gives more information about a specific person or thing.

(b) basic meaning: the conjunction does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

turned

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “turned” is the past tense of turn, which means to change the position of something so that it is pointing in a different direction.

(b) basic meaning: the verb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner 'my' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

world

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "world" is a noun refers to the world the planet that we live on.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

upside down.

(a) contextual meaning: the phrase "upside down" means to change someone's life completely, often in a way that is shocking or upsetting.

(b) basic meaning: the phrase does not have a different, more basic meaning as an adverb it means with the top part at the bottom or lower than the bottom part, for example; The car landed upside down in a ditch.

c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that "upside down" means the top part at the bottom or

lower than the bottom part, refers to change someone's life completely. Metaphorically used?
Yes.

14. **Saif:** Did you see Ahmed?

Samir: Don't you know ! he is a night owl.

Saif/ Did/ you/ see/ Ahmed/?

Samir/ Don't /you/ know/ ! he/ is/ a/ night /owl/.

Saif:

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Did

(a) contextual meaning: "did" is an intransitive verb which is the past of "do" that replaces or refers to an ordinary verb that was in a previous clause or sentence.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

you

(a) contextual meaning: "you" is a pronoun which is used for referring to the person or people that you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

see

(a) contextual meaning: “see” is a verb which means to notice someone or something using your eyes.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Ahmed

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Samir

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Don't

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "not" an adverb used for making negatives.

(b) basic meaning: the adverb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

you

(a) contextual meaning: "you" is a pronoun which is used for referring to the person or people that you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

know

(a) contextual meaning: "know" is a verb which means to be familiar with someone, because you have met them or because you are friends.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

he

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun "he" is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

is

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “is” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: MP.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the present tense of be, does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

night owl.

(a) contextual meaning: the noun “night owl” means someone who enjoys going out at night or does not go to bed until it is late.

(b) basic meaning: the noun “owl” does have a different, more basic meaning which is a large bird with a big head and eyes and a small sharp beak.

c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “owl” means a large bird or refers to someone who enjoys going out at night or does not go to bed until it is late. Metaphorically used? Yes.

15. I booked a ticket to New York, and my seat was W10. I sat in my seat comfortably, then an old man came and told me that I was sitting in his seat, and that I should move. He called the flight attendant to sort the problem. She looked at his ticket and told him that he made a mistake and that his ticket is M10! The man bowed his head, his face was flushed with embarrassment.

I/ booked/ a/ ticket/ to/ New York/, and /my/ seat/ was/ W10/. I /sat/ in/ my/ seat/ comfortably/, then/ an/ old/ man/ came/ and/ told/ me/ that/ I/ was/ sitting/ in/ his/ seat/, and/ that/ I /should/ move/. He/ called/ the/ flight/ attendant/ to/ sort/ the/ problem/. She/ looked/ at/ his/ ticket/ and/ told/ him/ that/ he/ made/ a/ mistake/ and/ that/ his/ ticket/ is/ M10/! The/ man/ bowed/ his/ head/, his/ face/ was/ flushed /with /embarrassment/.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

booked

(a) contextual meaning: “booked” is the past form of the verb “book” which means to buy tickets, or to arrange to have or use something at a particular time in the future.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

ticket

(a) contextual meaning: “ticket” is a noun which means a piece of paper that shows you have paid to go into a place of entertainment such as a cinema or football ground.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” is a preposition followed by a noun. Hence, it is used for the place someone is going to.

(b) *basic meaning*: As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning does not contrast with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to.

However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

New York

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to a city.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner ‘my’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

seat

(a) contextual meaning: “seat” is a noun which is something you can sit on.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

W10.

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to seat number on an airplane.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

sat

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “sat” is the past tense and past participle of sit, which means to be in a position in which the lower part of your body rests on a seat or on the ground, while the upper part of your body is upright.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

in

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “in” used for showing where someone or something is.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner ‘my’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

seat

(a) contextual meaning: “seat” is a noun which is something you can sit on.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

comfortably,

(a) contextual meaning: “comfortably” is an adverb which means a physically relaxed feeling and without any pain or other unpleasant feelings.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

then

(a) contextual meaning: “then” is an adjective which means at that time.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

an

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the determiner “an” used instead of ‘a’ when the next word begins with a vowel sound (e.g., elderly), it is used to refer to mention a person.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner 'an' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

old

(a) contextual meaning: "old" is an adjective which is used for talking about the age of someone or something.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

man

(a) contextual meaning: "man" is a noun which refers to an adult male human.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

came

(a) contextual meaning: the verb "came" is the past tense of come which is to move or travel to the place where you are.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

told

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “told” is the past tense and past participle of tell which means to give information to someone.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

me

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “me” is a pronoun that is used for referring to yourself when you are the person who is speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: the pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

that

(a) contextual meaning: the conjunction “that” is used for introducing a clause that shows which person or thing you are talking about, or that gives more information about a specific person or thing.

(b) basic meaning: the conjunction does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

sitting

(a) contextual meaning: “sitting” is a noun which means a period of time during which a meal is served.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

in

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “in” used for showing where someone or something is.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

his

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive pronoun which refers to a singular or plural noun, and it can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

seat

(a) contextual meaning: “seat” is a noun which is something you can sit on.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

that

(a) contextual meaning: the conjunction “that” is used for introducing a clause that shows which person or thing you are talking about, or that gives more information about a specific person or thing.

(b) basic meaning: the conjunction does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

should

(a) contextual meaning: “should” is a modal verb which is usually followed by an infinitive.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

move

(a) contextual meaning: “move” is a verb which means to change position, or to make someone or something change position.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

He

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

called

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “called” is the past tense of call which means to use a particular name or title for someone.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

flight

(a) contextual meaning: “flight” is a noun which means a journey through air or space in a vehicle such as a plane.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

attendant

(a) contextual meaning: “attendant” is a noun which means someone whose job is to help customers or people who visit a public place.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” is a preposition followed by a noun. Hence, it is used for the place someone is going to.

(b) *basic meaning*: As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning does not contrast with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

sort

(a) contextual meaning: “sort” is a noun which means a group of people or things with the same qualities or features.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

problem

(a) contextual meaning: “problem” is a noun which is something that causes trouble or difficulty.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

She

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “She” is a pronoun used as the subject of a verb.

(b) *basic meaning*: The pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

looked at

(a) contextual meaning: the phrasal verb “looked at” is the past tense form of the verb “look at” which means to direct your eyes towards someone or something so that you can see them.

(b) basic meaning: The phrasal verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

his

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive pronoun which refers to a singular or plural noun, and it can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

ticket

(a) contextual meaning: “ticket” is a noun which means a piece of paper that shows you have paid to go into a place of entertainment such as a cinema or football ground.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

told

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “told” is the past tense and past participle of tell which means to give information to someone.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

him

(a) contextual meaning: “him” is a pronoun, being the object of he.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

that

(a) contextual meaning: the conjunction “that” is used for introducing a clause that shows which person or thing you are talking about, or that gives more information about a specific person or thing.

(b) basic meaning: the conjunction does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

he

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the pronoun “he” is used as the subject of a verb.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

made

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “made” is the past tense of the verb “make” which means to create or produce something by working.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

mistake

(a) contextual meaning: “mistake” is a noun which means something that you have not done correctly, or something you say or think that is not correct.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

that

(a) contextual meaning: the conjunction “that” is used for introducing a clause that shows which person or thing you are talking about, or that gives more information about a specific person or thing.

(b) basic meaning: the conjunction does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

his

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive pronoun which refers to a singular or plural noun, and it can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

ticket

(a) contextual meaning: "ticket" is a noun which means a piece of paper that shows you have paid to go into a place of entertainment such as a cinema or football ground.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

is

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "is" introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: MP.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the present tense of be, does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

M10

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to seat number on an airplane.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

The

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

man

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to an adult male human.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

bowed

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “bowed” is the past tense of the verb “bow” which means to bend your body forwards from the waist, especially to show respect for someone.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

his

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive pronoun which refers to a singular or plural noun, and it can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

head

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to the top part of your body that has your brain, eyes , mouth etc. in it.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

his

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive pronoun which refers to a singular or plural noun, and it can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb or the object of a preposition

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

face

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to the front part of your head, where your eyes, nose, and mouth are.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

was

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “was” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: I.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the past tense of be, it is also a copular–linking verb, to be does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

flushed

(a) contextual meaning: The adjective “flushed” means looking red because you are hot or ill, or feel angry, embarrassed, or excited.

(b) basic meaning: The verb “flush” does have a more basic meaning, which is to cleans something by pouring a lot of water over it or through it.

c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “flushed” means to cleans something by pouring a lot of water over it or through it or refers to looking red because you are hot or ill, or feel angry, embarrassed, or excited. Metaphorically used? Yes.

with

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “with” is a preposition that means if one person or thing is with another or does something with them, they are together, or they do it together.

(b) basic meaning: the preposition does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

embarrassment.

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “embarrassment” is a noun that means a feeling of being nervous or ashamed because of what people know or think about you.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

C) Read the following sentences and indicate if the underlined word in each sentence is something you feel socially acceptable to use in the following contexts;

5. Three friends finished watching a movie at the cinema:

Natali: Lets go for a drink.

Liam: Yah, I 'm in.

Khalid: Drinks on me guys.

Natali to Khalid: I didn't know you drink.

Three friends finished watching a movie at the cinema:

Natali/ Lets/ go/ for/ a /drink/.

Liam/ Yah/, I 'm/ in/.

Khalid/ Drinks/ on/ me/ guys/.

Natali/ to/ Khalid/ I/ didn't/ know/ you/ drink/.

Natali

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Let's

(a) contextual meaning: is a phrase used for suggesting that you and one or more other people do something.

(b) basic meaning: The phrase does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

go

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which means to move or to travel to a place that is away from where you are now.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

for

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, a conjunction “for” indicates place, that is, it connects two clauses that is used for saying the place you are going to when you leave another place referred to by the third verb phrase in the sentence (*was trying to catch*).

(b) *basic meaning*: The preposition “for” can be used to introduce the beneficiary or recipient of an action, often involving the transfer of a physical entity from one person to another (e.g., *I bought some flowers for Chloe*). This could be regarded as the basic meaning of the preposition. This is the first sense of “for” in the contemporary dictionary used (discussed later).

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

drink

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which means to drink alcohol, especially regularly or too often.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does have a more basic meaning which is to take liquid into your body through your mouth.

c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “drink” means to take liquid into your body through your mouth or refers to looking red because you are hot or ill, or to drink alcohol, especially regularly or too often. Metaphorically used? Yes.

Liam

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Yah

(a) contextual meaning: is an informal adverb used when you are accepting what someone offers you.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I ‘m

(a) contextual meaning: “I’m” an informal short form of “I am”.

(b) basic meaning: “I’m” does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

in

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “in” used for saying what someone is joining others to do something.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Khalid

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Drinks

(a) contextual meaning: “drinks” is a plural form of the verb “drink” which means to drink alcohol, especially regularly or too often.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does have a more basic meaning which is to take liquid into your body through your mouth.

c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “drink” means to take liquid into your body through your mouth or refers to looking red because you are hot or ill, or to drink alcohol, especially regularly or too often. Metaphorically used? Yes.

on

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “on” used for saying who will pay for something.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Me

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “me” is a pronoun that is used for referring to yourself when you are the person who is speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: the pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

guys

(a) contextual meaning: “guys” is the plural form of the noun “guy” which informally means a man.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Natali

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

To

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” is a preposition followed by a noun. Hence, it is used for the place someone is going to.

(b) *basic meaning*: As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning does not contrast with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

Khalid

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

didn't

(a) contextual meaning: "did" is an intransitive verb which is the past of "do" that replaces or refers to an ordinary verb that was in a previous clause or sentence.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

know

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which means to have learned or found out about something.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

you

(a) contextual meaning: "you" is a pronoun which is used for referring to the person or people that you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

drink

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which means to drink alcohol, especially regularly or too often.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does have a more basic meaning which is to take liquid into your body through your mouth.

c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “drink” means to take liquid into your body through your mouth or refers to looking red because you are hot or ill, or to drink alcohol, especially regularly or too often. Metaphorically used? Yes.

6. Husband and wife at home after work;

Husband: Are you ok? You don't look well?

Wife: I have a terrible headache. Where are my drugs, I left them on this table last night?

Husband: Here you go. You left them on my desk.

Husband and wife at home after work;

Husband/ Are/ you/ ok/? /You/ don't/ look/ well/? /

Wife/ I /have/ a/ terrible/ headache/. /Where/ are/ my/ drugs/, I/ left/ them/ on/ this/ table/ last/ night/?
/

Husband:/ Here/ you /go/. You/ left/ them/ on/ my/ desk/.

Husband

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to a male partner in a marriage.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Are

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb a form of verb “be”.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

you

(a) contextual meaning: “you” is a pronoun which is used for referring to the person or people that you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

ok

(a) contextual meaning: “ok” is an adverb means in a way that is satisfactory or good.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

You

(a) contextual meaning: “you” is a pronoun which is used for referring to the person or people that you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

don't

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, "not" an adverb used for making negatives.

(b) basic meaning: the adverb does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

look

(a) contextual meaning: "look" is a verb which means to direct your eyes towards someone or something so that you can see them.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

well

(a) contextual meaning: "well" is an adverb which means in a skilful or effective way.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Wife

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to a female partner in marriage.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

have

(a) contextual meaning: “have” is an auxiliary verb used for forming perfect tenses. The perfect tenses are used for talking about what happened or began before now or another point in time.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

terrible

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which means making you feel very upset or afraid.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

headache

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which means a pain in your head.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Where

(a) contextual meaning: is a question adverb.

(b) basic meaning: The question adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

are

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb a form of verb "be".

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner 'my' does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

drugs

(a) contextual meaning: "drugs" is the plural form of the noun "drug" which means a substance that you take to treat a disease or medical problem.

(b) basic meaning: the noun does have a more basic meaning. It means an illegal substance that affects someone physically or mentally when they take it.

c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that "drugs" means an illegal substance that affects someone physically or mentally when they take it, or a substance that you take to treat a disease or medical problem. Metaphorically used? Yes.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Left

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which means on the side of your body that is to the west if you are facing north.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

them

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used for referring to a particular group of people or things when they have already been mentioned or when it is obvious which group you are referring to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

on

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “on” refers something on a surface,

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

this

(a) contextual meaning: is a determiner.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

table

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which means a piece of furniture that consists of a flat surface held above the floor, usually by legs.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

last

(a) contextual meaning: is a determiner which is used for referring to the week, month, year etc. that ended most recently.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

night

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which means the part of each 24-hour period when it is dark.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Husband

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to a male partner in a marriage.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Here you go.

(a) contextual meaning: is a phrase used when you are giving someone something that they have asked for or that they have just bought.

(b) basic meaning: The phrase does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

You

(a) contextual meaning: “you” is a pronoun which is used for referring to the person or people that you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

left

(a) contextual meaning: the verb “left” is the past tense of the verb “leave” which means to put something somewhere, especially in a place where it will stay.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

them

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used for referring to a particular group of people or things when they have already been mentioned or when it is obvious which group you are referring to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

on

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “on” refers something on a surface,

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

my

(a) contextual meaning: is a possessive determiner (followed by a noun), being a possessive form of I. It is used for showing that something belongs to or is connected with you when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The possessive determiner ‘my’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

desk

(a) contextual meaning: “desk” is a noun which refers to a table that you sit at to write or work.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

7. Two friends are describing their new colleague at work.

Nisreen: What do you think of Soad so far?

Bashayer: I think she is nice, easy to talk, and very simple.

Two friends are describing their new colleague at work.

Nisreen/: What/ do/ you/ think/ of /Soad/ so/ far/? /

Bashayer/: I/ think/ she/ is/ nice/, easy/ to/ talk/, / and/ very/ simple/.

Nisreen

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

What

(a) contextual meaning: is a question pronoun used for asking which thing, action, or idea something is, or which type of thing, action, or idea something is.

(b) basic meaning: The question pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

do

(a) contextual meaning: is an auxiliary verb used before another verb for forming a question or a negative.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

you

(a) contextual meaning: “you” is a pronoun which is used for referring to the person or people that you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

think

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which means to believe something based on facts or ideas.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

of

(a) contextual meaning: is a preposition which is used for saying who or what has a particular feature, aspect, or quality.

(b) basic meaning: The preposition *of* does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Soad

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

so far

(a) contextual meaning: is a phrase which means until now.

(b) basic meaning: The phrase does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

Bashayer

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

think

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which means to believe something based on facts or ideas.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

she

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, "She" is a pronoun used as the subject of a verb.

(b) *basic meaning*: The pronoun does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

is

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “is” introduces a (possible or hypothetical) property of a particular referent in the text world: MP.

(b) basic meaning: It is 3rd person singular of the present tense of be, does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

nice

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which means attractive, enjoyable, or pleasant.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

easy

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which means not difficult to do, or not needing much work.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

to

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “to” is a preposition followed by a noun. Hence, it is used for the place someone is going to.

(b) *basic meaning*: As a preposition, to has the more basic meaning of introducing the end point or destination of movement in physical space, as in *There are daily flights to Boston*.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: If we consider the lexeme to as a whole, the contextual meaning does not contrast with the basic, spatial meaning of the preposition to. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

talk

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb which means to use words to communicate.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

and

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “and” is used as a conjunction joining two words, phrases, or clauses.

(b) basic meaning: The conjunction does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

very

(a) contextual meaning: is an adverb used for emphasizing that a quality exists or is true to a great degree.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

simple

(a) contextual meaning: is an adjective which means easy to understand, solve, or do.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does have a more basic meaning it can also mean not intelligent.

c)The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “simple” means not intelligent, or easy to understand, solve, or do. Metaphorically used? Yes.

8. **Elene:** What are your plans for the weekend?

Mishary: I have a date with Janet on Saturday.

Elene: That's great news.

Elene/: What/ are/ your/ plans/ for/ the/ weekend/? /

Mishary: I/ have/ a/ date/ with/ Janet/ on/ Saturday/.

Elene:/ That's/ great/ news/.

Elene

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

What

(a) contextual meaning: is a question pronoun used for asking which thing, action, or idea something is, or which type of thing, action, or idea something is.

(b) basic meaning: The question pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

are

(a) contextual meaning: is a verb a form of verb “be”.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

your

(a) contextual meaning: is a determiner used for showing that something belongs to you is connected with the person or people you are talking or writing to.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

plans

(a) contextual meaning: the plural form of the noun “plan” which means a series of actions that you think about carefully to help you to achieve something.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

for

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, a conjunction “for” indicates place, that is, it connects two clauses that is used for saying the place you are going to when you leave another place referred to by the third verb phrase in the sentence (*was trying to catch*).

(b) *basic meaning*: The preposition “for” can be used to introduce the beneficiary or recipient of an action, often involving the transfer of a physical entity from one person to another (e.g., *I bought some flowers for Chloe*). This could be regarded as the basic meaning of the preposition. This is the first sense of “for” in the contemporary dictionary used (discussed later).

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning. However, we have not found a way in which the contextual meaning can be understood by comparison with the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

the

(a) *contextual meaning*: In this context, “the” has the grammatical function of indicating definite reference.

(b) *basic meaning*: The definite article the does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) *contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

weekend

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to Saturday and Sunday.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

Mishary

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No.

I

(a) contextual meaning: is a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to yourself when you are the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The pronoun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. *Metaphorically used?* No

have

(a) contextual meaning: “have” is an auxiliary verb used for forming perfect tenses. The perfect tenses are used for talking about what happened or began before now or another point in time.

(b) basic meaning: The verb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No

a

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the noun “a” which is a vowel.

(b) basic meaning: The determiner ‘a’ does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

date

(a) contextual meaning: the noun means an arrangement to meet someone who you are having or starting a sexual or romantic relationship with.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does have a more basic meaning. It means the name and number of a particular day or year.

(c) The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand that “date” means the name and number of a particular day or year, or an arrangement to meet someone who you are having or starting a sexual or romantic relationship with. Metaphorically used? Yes.

with

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, “with” is a preposition that means if one person or thing is with another or does something with them, they are together, or they do it together.

(b) basic meaning: the preposition does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Janet

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

on

(a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition “on” used for saying the day or date when something happens.

(b) basic meaning: The adverb does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Saturday

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun which refers to a day after Friday and before Sunday.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

Elene

(a) contextual meaning: is a noun is used as the subject of a verb, it is used for referring to the person speaking or writing.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

That's

(a) contextual meaning: the conjunction "that" is used for introducing a clause that shows which person or thing you are talking about, or that gives more information about a specific person or thing.

(b) basic meaning: the conjunction does not have a different, more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

great

(a) contextual meaning: the adjective means bigger or more than is usual.

(b) basic meaning: The adjective does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

news

(a) contextual meaning: the noun means information about something that has happened recently.

(b) basic meaning: The noun does not have a more basic meaning.

(c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning. Metaphorically used? No.

L. Appendix 12. A Guide to Moderating focus groups

Welcome & Introduction to the topic

Good afternoon and welcome to our session, I'm Maye Alotaibi and I'm a PhD student from the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training studying at MMU, and I'm pleased that you can all join us today for our focus group. You're invited to participate in our discussion about different types of metaphors, today we are going to discuss some of the themes found in the pre-questionnaire, and how you make sense of them. Before we discuss in groups, I will distribute some slips of paper with a simple task for you to do separately.

Background to the topic

This study is being done at the request of the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, many studies have been done to help Kuwaiti EFL learners improve their learning of English language, at the end of this study we will share the information (results) with the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training and Manchester Metropolitan University. Also, if you are interested, we will send a copy of the results to you as well, let us know if that is something you are interested in. You were selected because you are among a group of people who meet the criteria (Kuwaiti EFL learners – Upper-intermediate & Advanced level), and we are glad that you are here for our session.

Ground rules for the focus group

As I mentioned earlier my name is Maye, and my assistant is Ms Leen, she will be taking notes. We are going to be tape-recording today, we have a microphone in the middle of the room, and we are recording so that we don't miss any comments, often people say things so well

we are not able to write them down quickly enough and the tape recorder helps us capture those.

There are a few ground rules that might help us:

- 1) If you have a cell-phone we would appreciate it if you could turn it off or turn the ringer off.
- 2) If you need to respond to a call, please step outside, but then come back in as soon as you can.
- 3) We have more refreshments and some chocolate over there, on the side table, so help yourself to that, whenever you have a need for those things.
- 4) There are no wrong answers today in our conversation, many people have different experiences and opinions, feel free to comment even if your ideas or thoughts are different from what other people say.
- 5) My job is to guide you in the conversation and keep us on time; and to be sure that we finish within 45 minutes today, I may interrupt, I may push us a long faster so that we finish our conversation on time.

Opening questions

- 1- Let us take a moment and go around the room, tell us your name, when you started learning English and in which schools.
- 2- What do you like and dislike about learning English? (If English was an animal what might it be? <- use a projection strategy?)

How to deal with:

- a) Ramblers: if you feel they took too much time, shift eye contact, ask if anyone else agrees with their point to shift the conversation.
- b) Quiet person: ...we haven't heard from you? What do you think?

Different strategies to use to ask questions

- Role play <- reflecting on role play.
- Cards <- I have got some cards, could you write three...?

(If you find a difficult word in a sentence what do you do? Write them an example or not! Do you mark or circle the word? Then write their explanation on the board, to see which are the most important?)

Give them a card with a metaphor, ask them to explain?

Write them on the board, see how many answers you get.
- Rating sheets <- pass around a card with a short sentence and underlined word let them rate it as: Will use it, not sure, would rather not.

Draw rating on the board and fill in their answers to see their results, then discuss it out loud.

Ways to get rapid feedback

- 1- Show of fingers
- 2- Thumbs up, thumbs down.
- 3- Projection (asking people what something might represent? e.g. if a travel agency is an animal what might it be? Lion! Why? B/c it represents....

the final question for today is the most important thing said. We are going round the table for this:

- What to you is the most important thing said today? Or something you have heard someone else say? And what is it that is the most important?
- What is the most important thing you have heard in our discussion today?

Assistant moderator's summary

We are going to ask Ms Lee, she has been taking notes, do you have any final questions? And if you don't, would you give us a brief summary of our group (some of the key points).

"That concludes our group today, thank you for your presence, help yourselves to some refreshments and have an enjoyable and successful learning experience in the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training and in life."

M. Appendix 13. Data Collection Stages

Stage one: Preparations before week 1

Prior to Week 1, I contacted the Head of LC, the Head of the English Department at the College of Business Studies and English teachers at the College of Business Studies to ask their permission to conduct this study and to be assigned a visitor's card to facilitate visiting the College of Business Studies premises, and different departments in different buildings. Another purpose of the visit was to arrange to meet volunteers from the College of Business Studies for this study. I presented a list of all the necessary steps to be taken:

1. At the College of Business Studies, volunteers were required for 45-60 minutes for each session.
2. An assurance was given that College of Business Studies students would not be scheduled at times when there would be conflicts of interest with other activities (their classes) of greater importance to the respondents.
3. Large groups of 35-50 volunteered to be seen by the researcher in every session.
4. Two small (English advanced level & English upper-intermediate level) groups of 10-15 volunteered to be interviewed once by the researcher.
5. Administration of the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire would be in the presence of the researcher.
6. A delayed post-questionnaire would be administered by a colleague after nearly two months (16–17 December 2018) to the same groups of volunteers.

Stage two: Week 1

The first week included administering the background information questionnaire, the pre-questionnaire, and the interview at the end of the week (for experimental groups only).

Background information questionnaire and pre- questionnaire

At the time of the questionnaire administration, oral statements of purpose were given and the importance of the College of Business Studies volunteers' cooperation in completing the study was emphasised. Moreover, respondents were informed orally that the investigator would check each respondent's questionnaire for completeness. In addition to the above, a covering letter was included with all the instructions needed for answering the questionnaire written in Arabic, not English, to ensure the volunteers did not misunderstand the purpose of the study. A covering letter was necessary to indicate the aim of the survey, convey to the respondents its importance, assure them of its confidentiality and encourage them to complete it (Cohen and Manion, 1989, p.113).

I was aware of the possible 'biased' responses I might receive as a result of administering the questionnaire myself, and by making myself available for any comments. To address this problem, I tried to avoid making any comments regarding my personal views on the topics being explored. Respondents were informed that the purpose of the questionnaire was not to test their capability nor to categorise them (good or bad) according to their answers. They were told that they should regard the exercise as a favour to the researcher, and to the English language research field. They were told that it was anticipated that each person's answer would be different from others as a result of differences in personal points of view and judgements. Therefore, there would be an appropriate distance between respondents to ensure individuals

were not influenced by each other. Despite the disadvantages that might arise, such as 'bias' or 'unbias' from the presence of the researcher during the administration of the questionnaire, my presence had several advantages in terms of time, completion and clarification.

1. Time: all questionnaires were handed in after the respondents had completed their answers.
2. Completion: all handed in questionnaires were checked for completeness before the respondents left the classroom.
3. Clarification: for anticipated comments regarding any misunderstandings in interpretation of the questionnaire instructions, I was able to use semi-directive contact with the respondents.

The interview and focus group

The interviews were conducted on the last day of the first week; the students were chosen at random based on their availability. I provided a general overview of the research project before starting the interview. I also explained how the data would be handled after the interview and discussed issues of confidentiality and anonymity, as indicated in Krueger and Casey (2014). I also set some ground rules following Morgan and Krueger (1998a,1998b), who advise that after welcoming your participants to discuss the ground rules for the focus group and how the discussion will run, it is vital to reassure students that there are no right and wrong answers, and all opinions are welcome. Thus, in return, will minimise any hesitation to participate and might result in eliciting more data. Furthermore, I provided the participants with refreshments, a practice which should have a positive outcome according to Morgan and Kruger (1998a, 1998b).

However, some difficulties were encountered while conducting the interview; one of the main difficulties was using the allocated venue. Despite booking the only convenient rooms available to accommodate the large number of participants, weeks in advance, the bookings had to be cancelled which affected the time schedule and data collection. To resolve the issue I contacted the Head of the English Department for advice, and she suggested as a substitute to use one of the teacher's offices. Therefore, as the office could not accommodate 10 chairs, I decided to create a welcoming atmosphere for my participants to gather as much data as possible. I used Arabic seating and brought a large carpet and 12 Arabic cushions to put on the floor to make a Majles (Arabic seating arrangement) and invited the participants in by traditionally taking their shoes off near the door and grabbing refreshments and Arabic coffee as if they were at home. The setting of the office was well arranged in advance, refreshments were placed on a table by the door, so participants could help themselves as they entered the room. The seating was set up in a U-shape in the office room, and I was situated in the centre, with a small whiteboard by my side, visible to all participants, on which the interview tasks were presented. Thankfully, the participants found it a pleasant, homely gesture that made them feel comfortable to engage in the interview. In addition, I enlisted the help of a colleague to arrange the room, help with the recording, hand out papers to participants, keep track of the time and take notes in the form of bullet points.

Stage three: Week 2 Teaching intervention

The proposed teaching intervention was administered in three different sessions (of 45 mins) over three consecutive days during the same week (Sun, Tue, Thu) for the two experimental

groups, based on their availability and schedule timing. The experimental teaching intervention followed the same method used for analysing metaphors. This teaching method illustrated explicitly what was proposed to be occurring implicitly in the cognition of the human brain in the form of maps drawn on the whiteboard. The classes included explicit instruction on a metaphor based on three approaches, as outlined above in 3.5.3.3.: a) analogical reasoning; b) conceptual metaphor mapping; and c) semantic primitive analysis.

Stage four: Week 4 the post-questionnaire

A post-questionnaire was administered; the same process used in the pre-questionnaire was followed, excluding the oral introduction of the purpose of the study. Moreover, students were informed that the researcher would contact them via email to complete the delayed post-questionnaire.

Stage five: Delayed post-questionnaire

At the end of term (16–17 December 2018), a delayed post-questionnaire was administered over two consecutive days in two sessions. The administration process was the same as for the post-questionnaire. Volunteers were thanked, and their questionnaires sent to the researcher using Aramex. The following section discusses the methods used for analysing data collected for this research.

N. Appendix 14

Tables of raw and percentage numbers for Part 1 and Part of the questionnaire

		Pre-Questionnaire							Post-Questionnaire							Delayed-Post-Questionnaire						
Part.1		S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
U.C. Pre: 40 Post:40 Delayed: 36	Type.1	1	104	0	32	41	0	0	0	82	31	10	57	0	0	12	0	0	88	43	0	17
	Type.3	0	32	113	30	3	0	0	0	60	90	7	23	0	0	6	105	0	8	0	0	39
	Type.6	9	80	64	22	0	0	4	12	60	100	8	0	0	0	12	138	1	9	0	0	0
U.E. Pre: 47 Post:43 Delayed:38	Type.1	13	113	0	69	40	0	0	13	42	18	0	132	10	0	10	0	0	53	120	10	2
	Type.3	17	82	103	13	20	0	0	3	0	78	17	112	5	0	27	89	0	0	52	0	27
	Type.6	33	0	152	33	0	0	17	19	4	105	49	31	3	4	16	110	15	29	5	14	6

Table1: The most used strategies by the upper- intermediate groups in different types of metaphors (in numbers).

		Pre-Questionnaire							Post-Questionnaire							Delayed-Post-Questionnaire						
Part.1		S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
A.C. Pre: 46 Post: 42 Delayed:39	Type.1	4	100	41	30	53	0	0	2	101	67	8	32	0	0	10	0	0	50	129	0	5
	Type.3	0	80	85	51	13	0	0	0	79	114	12	5	0	0	14	118	0	10	0	0	52
	Type.6	13	63	108	45	0	0	1	17	86	100	7	0	0	0	32	143	5	5	0	0	10
A.E. Pre:47 Post:40 Delayed: 39	Type.1	2	165	0	12	56	0	0	7	1	31	0	151	4	0	0	0	0	70	106	7	12
	Type.3	24	0	103	10	89	0	2	10	0	42	26	119	3	0	7	72	0	0	100	0	15
	Type.6	29	0	151	42	0	0	12	5	7	82	64	38	4	0	10	84	17	60	8	12	4

Table2: The most used strategies by the advance groups in different types of metaphors (in numbers).

		Pre-Questionnaire							Post-Questionnaire							Delayed-Post-Questionnaire						
Part.1		S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
U.C. Pre: 40 St. Post:40 St. Delayed: 36 St.	Type.1	0%	58%	0 %	18%	23%	0%	0%	0%	46%	17%	5%	32%	0%	0%	7%	0%	0%	55%	27%	0%	11%
	Type.3	0%	18%	63%	17%	2%	0%	0%	0%	33%	50%	4%	13%	0%	0%	4%	59%	0%	5%	0%	0%	32%
	Type.6	5%	44%	35%	14%	0%	0%	2%	7%	33%	56%	4%	0%	0%	0%	7%	86%	1%	6%	0%	0%	0%
U.E. Pre: 47 St. Post:43 St. Delayed:38 St.	Type.1	6%	48%	0 %	29%	17%	0%	0%	6%	21%	9%	0%	64%	5 %	0%	5%	0%	0%	27%	62%	5%	1%
	Type.3	7%	35%	44%	6%	8%	0%	0%	2%	0 %	36%	8%	52%	2%	0%	14%	45%	0%	0%	27%	0%	14%
	Type.6	14%	0%	65%	14%	0%	0%	7%	9%	2%	49%	23%	14%	1%	2%	9%	58%	8%	15%	3%	7%	3%

Table3: The most used strategies by Advanced level groups in different types of metaphors (in percentages).

		Pre-Questionnaire							Post-Questionnaire							Delayed-Post-Questionnaire						
Part.1		S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7
A.C. Pre: 46 St. Post: 42 St. Delayed:39 St.	Type.1	2%	44%	18%	13%	23%	0%	0%	1%	48%	32%	4%	15%	0%	0%	5 %	0%	0%	26%	66%	0%	3%
	Type.3	0%	35%	37%	22%	6%	0%	0%	0%	38%	54%	6%	2 %	0%	0%	7%	61%	0%	5%	0%	0%	27%
	Type.6	6%	27%	47%	20%	0%	0%	0%	8%	41%	48%	3%	0%	0%	0%	16%	73%	3%	3%	0%	0%	5%
A.E. Pre:47 St. Post:40 St. Delayed: 39 St.	Type.1	1%	70%	0%	5%	24%	0%	0%	4%	0%	18%	0%	77%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	36%	54%	4%	6%
	Type.3	11%	0%	45%	4%	39%	0%	1%	2%	0%	36%	8%	53%	2%	0%	4%	37%	0%	0%	51%	0%	8%
	Type.6	12%	0%	65%	18%	0%	0%	5%	2%	4%	41%	32%	19%	2%	0%	5%	43%	9%	31%	4%	6%	2%

Table4: The most used strategies by Advanced level groups in different types of metaphors (in percentages).

Question 1		Pre-questionnaire			Post-questionnaire			Delayed-post questionnaire		
Three friends finished watching a movie at the cinema: Natali: Lets go for a drink. Liam: Yah, I 'm in. Khalid: Drinks on me guys. Natali to Khalid: I didn't know you <u>drink</u> .		Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
U.C. Pre: 40 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 36 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	15	13	12	24	3	13	18	12	6
	<i>Percentages</i>	37%	33%	30%	60%	7%	33%	50%	33%	17%
A.C. Pre: 46 students Post: 42 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	17	12	17	26	3	13	20	8	11
	<i>Percentages</i>	37%	26%	37%	62%	7%	31%	51%	21%	28%
U.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 43 Students Delayed Post: 38 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	19	9	19	11	5	27	14	15	18
	<i>Percentages</i>	41%	19%	40%	25%	12%	63%	30%	32%	38%
A.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	21	6	20	21	14	5	17	20	2
	<i>Percentages</i>	45%	13%	42%	52%	35%	13%	44%	51%	5%

Table5: Part 2 questionnaire: Question1 (Pre-Post & delayed post-questionnaire) – raw numbers and percentages.

Question 2		Pre-questionnaire			Post-questionnaire			Delayed-post questionnaire		
Husband and wife at home after work; Husband: Are you ok? You don't look well? Wife: I have a terrible headache. Where are my <u>drugs</u> , I left them on this table last night? Husband: Here you go. You left them on my desk.		Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
U.C. Pre: 40 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 36 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	14	6	20	36	1	3	8	18	10
	<i>Percentages</i>	35%	15%	50%	90%	2%	8%	22%	50%	28%
A.C. Pre: 46 students Post: 42 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	5	5	36	29	6	7	25	7	7
	<i>Percentages</i>	11%	11%	78%	69%	14%	17%	64%	18%	18%
U.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 43 Students Delayed Post: 38 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	5	8	34	13	16	14	19	16	3
	<i>Percentages</i>	11%	17%	72%	30%	37%	33%	50%	42%	8%
A.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	11	13	23	18	20	2	15	21	3
	<i>Percentages</i>	45%	13%	42%	45%	50%	5%	38%	54%	8%

Table6: Part 2 questionnaire: Question2 (Pre-Post & delayed post-questionnaire) – raw numbers and percentages.

Question 3 Two friends are describing their new colleague at work. Nisreen: What do you think of Soad so far? Bashayer: I think she is nice, easy to talk, and very <u>simple</u> .		Pre-questionnaire			Post-questionnaire			Delayed-post questionnaire		
		Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
U.C. Pre: 40 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 36 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	31	8	1	6	6	28	4	11	21
	<i>Percentages</i>	77%	20%	3%	15%	15%	70%	22%	50%	28%
A.C. Pre: 46 students Post: 42 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	35	5	6	9	6	31	10	5	24
	<i>Percentages</i>	76%	11%	13%	20%	13%	67%	26%	13%	61%
U.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 43 Students Delayed Post: 38 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	31	5	11	14	17	12	10	19	9
	<i>Percentages</i>	66%	11%	23%	33%	39%	28%	26%	50%	24%
A.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	38	7	2	5	13	22	2	29	9
	<i>Percentages</i>	81%	15%	4%	12%	33%	55%	5%	72%	23%

Table7: Part 2 questionnaire: Question3 (Pre-Post & delayed post-questionnaire) – raw numbers and percentages.

Question 4		Pre-questionnaire			Post-questionnaire			Delayed-post questionnaire		
Elene: What are your plans for the weekend? Mishary: I have a <u>date</u> with Janet on Saturday. Elene: That's great news		Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.	Su.	N.S.	N.Su.
U.C. Pre: 40 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 36 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	29	6	5	3	3	34	8	18	10
	<i>Percentages</i>	72%	15%	13%	7%	8%	85%	22%	50%	28%
A.C. Pre: 46 students Post: 42 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	15	17	14	13	16	13	11	11	17
	<i>Percentages</i>	33%	37%	30%	31%	38%	31%	28%	28%	44%
U.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 43 Students Delayed Post: 38 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	17	13	18	9	14	20	8	7	23
	<i>Percentages</i>	35%	27%	38%	21%	33%	46%	21%	18%	61%
A.E. Pre: 47 students Post: 40 Students Delayed Post: 39 Students	<i>Raw Numbers</i>	27	15	5	5	16	19	6	16	17
	<i>Percentages</i>	57%	32%	11%	12%	40%	48%	15%	41%	44%

Table8: Part 2 questionnaire: Question4 (Pre-Post & delayed post-questionnaire) – raw numbers and percentages.